

The Social Studies

VOLUME XLII, NUMBER 5

Continuing The Historical Outlook

MAY, 1951

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.

Subscription \$3.00 a year, single numbers 40 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLII, NUMBER 5

MAY, 1951

Controversial Issues and Educational Freedom

R. E. GROSS

Menlo School and College, Menlo Park, California

Recently my principal asked me to step into his office. He informed me that one of the pupils, during a routine conversation, had reported me as being a Communist. The principal explained, "I questioned the student as to why he thought so and the boy answered, 'Because we are studying about Russia and Communism.'"

This is a typical reaction of a minority of our citizens and parents who today, as self-appointed watchdogs of the Republic, are pushing forward the educational phase of the Great Witch Hunt of the 1950's. Among the greatest of the real dangers are the threats which would limit freedom of inquiry in our schools. Our society is in actual danger when, in our public schools, teachers are broken, truths hushed, controversial issues side-tracked, texts banned, curriculum contents proscribed, and children robbed of their rights and needs for becoming clear-thinking individuals in our democratic system—all in the name of protecting the pupils and America itself from one or another of the evils which, it is claimed, threaten our existence.

What can be done to insure the position of teachers and schools in handling controversial issues and in helping the public to view properly the responsibility of the school in such matters? A sensible program will include: (1) a satisfactory public relations policy, (2) able administrative leadership, and (3) capable teachers who understand their own role in this difficult area. Except for the two brief statements following, this article will be concerned primarily with problems in the third category.

Teachers and administrators develop the best public relations through satisfied students; but, in the area of controversial issues, this is not

enough to establish community sympathy. Teachers, administrators, and interested parents must act positively to preserve the integrity of pupil, teacher, and school from the groups who would limit our freedom of speech and discussion in the name of preserving their own brands of Americanism. We must move speedily to define the true meaning of democracy to the public. We need to carefully interpret the school curriculum to the public. We also need programs of adult education to help these citizens clarify their own thinking as to the school's obligations concerning the study of current issues.

The responsibility of the administrator in building public cooperation is just as necessary as that of the teachers, who, through wise methods of tackling living problems can help build public confidence in the school. The administrator, however, has some special duties in this area. He can lead the school board in arriving at a policy statement upon which the teachers can safely build their own program. He should work out with his faculty the best means of studying these problems and then must supervise to the extent of seeing that teachers are able and fair in dealing with such problems. He must help the teacher provide the necessary materials of study for use in the classroom and in the school library. He should also facilitate the bringing of resource people into the school and, even more important, make possible the use of the community to classes and committees who wish to work in the locality. It goes without saying that basic to all of this is the responsibility of the administrator to use wise leadership in providing the democratic school, in the fullest sense of the word.

Each individual teacher must realize the prime importance of his role and the implications attendant when dealing with vital problems. One of the best ways for the teacher to assure his freedom is by using it wisely. His independence is certainly not a license for him to teach whatsoever he pleases. He should always present all sides of controversial questions that arise. The writer remembers vividly the pressure brought to bear upon a school in which he once taught when another social studies teacher, during a heated local election, presented only the side favoring the public purchase and operation of the local public utilities. It was not long before this one-sided story got home and the teacher was barely able to save her job.

Controversial issues may be planned as a regular part of the work, but often they arise on the spur of the moment. One of the most rewarding studies this writer and his classes ever made was on the occasion of a particularly brutal murder. This English group dropped *Julius Caesar* and spent an eventful two weeks on a study of the question of capital punishment in a state that does not allow it. In their survey of public opinion and the arguments pro and con, pupil committees gathered information and interviewed everyone from their local pastor to the governor of the state.

No matter how a controversial issue arises, the teacher is usually pressed for his own opinion. I believe that he should, as a learner among learners, not propagandize, but, rather, carefully state his views and explain the reasons back of his thinking. Some writers in this field do not agree with this position and would like to see the teacher as a neutral arbiter on all possible occasions. This writer, however, feels that usually the teacher can and should withhold his views until pupils have reached their conclusions. Sometimes this is impossible and even injurious to his relations with the pupils. There also may be occasions when the teacher, because of the make-up of the class or the lack of materials available on one side of the question, must greatly emphasize the one side of the issue. In this situation the teacher must again be careful that the pupils do not come to view his balancing presentation as pressure propaganda.

On this question of the teacher's viewpoint there can be little disagreement that he must have standards and values in terms of the basic principles and methods of democracy and that he is expected to emphasize them whenever possible. The teacher in the public school is a servant of society. His academic freedom demands the responsibility that he indoctrinate for the democratic system. If he does not have faith in this way of life, he should not seek or expect to retain employment in its vital areas of apprenticeship. He may have the right to think, talk, and live as he desires as a private citizen; but as a teacher in our public schools he must be a biased believer, practitioner, and instructor in the free way of life. Many so-called controversial issues are not controversial in terms of the liberal, democratic tradition. Here there can be no question as to the stand of the teacher. I do not believe the community expects the teacher to be a colorless and completely unbiased individual. He can help pupils see how persons can arrive at two different answers, depending upon their premises, and in this manner explain his own conclusions. Nevertheless, he should realize his position of leadership and import with the pupils and urge them to judge his beliefs just as they would any other source they might consult.

It is the opinion of this writer that one of the great problems of our generation is the tremendous number of indecisive people with standards on a sliding scale who have been taught that whatever works is right and good. So-called objective neutrality has been too commonly unprincipled relativity and in the field of controversial issues where basic, democratic questions are being solved, such attitudes can be just as damaging as bias.

Certain teachers and writers in this field think that the mere discussion of these issues and the development by the pupils of the means of satisfactorily handling such problems is enough. The writer will agree that it is seldom the place of the school to take official leadership and group action in the community, in the name of the school, as a result of a study of issues which even the community has not been able to agree upon. It is possible, however, that if the community had grappled with the problem in the fair manner with which the school group arrived at its conclusions, the locality might be

able to resolve the issue. Therefore, as the writer has suggested, answers to problems are important; perhaps because the pupil in some cases is in no immediate position to take action concerning his studied opinion, as such, it may not be as important as practice in and dedication to the method of arriving at honest answers. It is probable, though, that issues where the pupils cannot make some social contribution as a result of their study should not be started in the first place. Whenever possible the student should arrive at sound conclusions and in the ways open to him, whether in writing a letter to a congressman, participating in a school Town Meeting, or in trying to influence his parents' views, he should try to act upon his social studies. Only too often do we find the pupil developing lack of interest, a feeling of frustration, or the belief that the course is worthless when he finds it impossible to follow his impulse to do something in a positive manner about the vital decisions he and his group have made.

This is not meant to depreciate the real value of grasping the opportunity surrounding controversial issues to instill in the pupil the method of critical thinking in the solving of human problems. This is one of the keys to democracy, this use of reason to solve important questions. And it is to this method, along with adherence to the basic values of democracy, that the teacher owes his constant allegiance. Cooperating individuals, planning successfully towards attaining worthy personal and social goals, are the basic aim of freedom of teaching, as well as the main aim of our schools. Pupils must have full experiences, using democratic discussion techniques and grappling in the scientific manner with their immediate problems or those they will soon come to face.

Some immediate hints to teachers now working in the area of living issues include the reminder to know and become known in your community, to realize the growing public fear in these tense days and adjust to the feelings as those expressed in a recent article by a popular columnist. "The danger is not that there is too much taught about what is right in Communism, but that there is too little taught about what is right in America." At the same time they should strive to get pupils and community groups to work in areas of possible agreement

so that mutual understanding and friendships will emerge. From these satisfying common experiences people with differing views concerning other topics will have come to trust one another and thus be willing to cooperate in arriving at needed solutions.

Despite these approaches and techniques, there is naturally some question as to just how far the school can go in handling troublesome issues. The writer believes there are at least five major factors which may limit the handling of controversial issues in the schoolroom. These include: (1) the pupil's background and maturity, (2) the pupil's interest, (3) the teacher's ability and experience, (4) the availability of the facts, and (5) the climate of opinion in the school or community.

The pupil's readiness for the subject is indeed basically important. Many topics, beyond the adequate comprehension or realm of experience of younger pupils, should be avoided. Even in the secondary school pupils may either be not mature enough or may not be able to see the value of certain topics with which they seem to have no immediate relationship.

The factor of pupil interest is, of course, related to the above limitation. If the students show no interest, the teacher should not push them into a study of an issue. Nor is it the job of the teacher to search out and keep constantly presenting controversial subjects for class work. It is best if these rise out of the subject matter, through the pupils themselves. This is not to say that the teacher should not point out controversial questions related to a topic when the class happens to overlook them. This may be especially necessary when the teacher is working with very homogeneous groups from like social strata.

A third limitation upon the freedom of the teacher to take up social issues is his own training, background, and ability to handle such questions. A teacher may be too biased, may not have the experience or command of the material, or may lack the necessary prerequisite instruction in the methods of approaching these problems. Not only teachers in the social studies but those in all fields should have some training in this area. If it has not been received in college or university courses, the teachers should be exposed to these important means through

in-service training in study groups or institute workshops.

The discussion of controversial issues also depends upon the availability of the facts. Too many decisions in every-day life are made solely upon prejudiced, emotional reaction or incomplete evidence. It is no use to study an issue unless satisfactory materials are available for perusal. The classroom library is an essential when pupils deal with controversial topics and the teacher must plan to have magazines, books, pamphlets, and newspapers on hand that present facts and opinions on both sides of the question. If there is no chance of getting many of these, if a discussion is little more than an exchange of highly charged personal opinions, then the issue should never have been selected.

Certainly the immediate climate of opinion in the school or community and the local mores can be another limitation upon the teacher in the school. Issues can be too "hot" (a bitterly contested local election) or conflict so with community traditions (religious or moral questions), that the teacher is only "cutting his own throat" to venture into such problems. There may be legitimate local or pupil needs for such study, but until the teacher has administrative and school board backing, the confidence of the parents, and a mandate from the majority of the community he can only work to gain these by leading his pupils into less controversial areas. Thus, eventually he may win the necessary support to tackle the more pointed issues. In our ever unfinished democracy the teacher may be doing a greater service to long-time social improvement by such patient and sensible approaches, rather than by rushing to the foreground as a valiant crusader and being broken, along with his now more distant hopes, by the established forces of the *status quo*.

This brings to mind the interesting related question of active teacher participation in local politics and pressure groups. The writer believes that the teacher as an individual has the right to belong to such organizations and to run for public office. The teacher does not, however, have the right to drag these affairs into his classes or to forget his prime loyalty to instructing his pupils. When such duties seriously conflict, he must make his choice and give up one or the other of his enterprises. Actually it would probably be a source of improvement for Amer-

ican politics if more teachers wished, and felt they were free, to take a personal part in governmental activities.

There can be no question as to the value of and need for free discussion of vital social, political, and economic issues in the schools of a society such as ours. Indeed, this is an actual requirement of our educational programs which calls for much course and school curricular revision. For out of the study of controversial questions we can gain most assuredly many of our basic educational objectives.

How can students develop a better perspective of our changing society, of the lag between technological achievements and entrenched institutions and mores, of the eternal differences of opinion that rightly mark the democratic social order?

Out of the study of such issues comes an understanding of the real nature of democracy, of the endless striving, continuous flux, constant struggle for something ever better that marks free man in a free society; that every issue worth fighting for is controversial to some and that no static utopia or land of milk and honey can ever be; that the new, the good, is ever ahead and will always be opposed.

In working with these problems students will also come to better understand human emotions, loyalties, and prejudices; to realize the two sides to almost every question; to develop open-mindedness, tolerance, and appreciations of the other fellow and his different attitudes and goals. At the same time the student will come to understand himself more completely.

Perhaps in such studies students will even come to practice and believe in the essential laws of democracy, such as those of compromise, cooperation, planning, and self-discipline, realizing that not until we practice these on a full scale can we hope for real social and economic improvement.

Finally students in discussing and probing these issues will use critical thinking and develop pre-dispositions to act and programs of action based upon their findings and their principles. Out of such thinking and acting in bettering their way of life, students will not only make wise choices but through these experiences will build the moral factors that can overbalance the forces of evil loose in the world today.

The United Nations in a Teachers College:

• ELWYN H. ODELL

Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Washington

During the 1950 summer session the Division of Social Science conducted an experiment in learning and teaching about the United Nations. It was a tentative response to the need for a more extensive treatment of the United Nations in the social science curriculum.

The nature of the experiment was mainly determined by the composition of the summer session student body. As most teachers' colleges do, Central Washington College enrolls during the summer a large number of teachers who return for further study toward credentials and degrees. It seemed, therefore, appropriate to offer a "teachers' course" on the United Nations, for it provided not only a means of enhancing the United Nations program here, but also a more direct and perhaps a more effective means of introducing the study of the United Nations into the public schools.

The course was organized for a one-half quarter period, or four and a half five-day weeks. Although the greater emphasis was placed upon a study of the materials and methods for teaching about the United Nations, there were three major objectives of the course:

- 1) to develop an understanding of the fundamentals of U.N. structure and functions,
- 2) to provide a knowledge of the methods for teaching about the U.N.
- 3) to provide the teachers with an opportunity to develop a unit of work on the U.N., and where possible an opportunity to participate directly or indirectly in the teaching of the unit.

The first objective involved a general study of the U.N. proper. A textbook was used, and student reports and panels amplified the information relative to the practical functioning of the specialized agencies.

A study of the methods and materials for teaching about the U.N. comprised the second step. The principal sources for student reports

and class discussion were 1) *Learning World Goodwill in the Elementary School*, the 25th Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association (1946), 2) *Education for International Understanding in American Schools*, N.E.A., 1948, and 3) *Use of Audio-Visual Materials Toward International Understanding*, edited by Helen Seaton Preston, American Council on Education, 1946. These were supplemented by U.N. unit materials published by various school boards throughout the United States, and by the use of films, charts and posters. A considerable quantity of pamphlet and visual aid material was provided to each member of the class for later use in his own school.

The third phase of the course was to provide the United Nations class with an opportunity to develop and present a unit of work. The class divided itself into four groups, primary, intermediate, junior high and senior high, each member joining the level with which he was most familiar. The primary, junior and senior high groups planned to present their units for discussion and criticism before the other members of the class, since it was not possible for them to work with the College Elementary School children. The intermediate group, however, organized their unit for actual presentation in the fourth grade class. The cooperation of the College Elementary School was a vital part of the entire project.

The organization of each of the four units was essentially a group activity. It involved many hours of group discussion and planning, in addition to extensive research, and the selection and gathering of all types of materials. Miss Lois Hammill, the fourth grade teacher, worked closely with the intermediate group. Because of the very limited time (five days) available to the intermediate group for presenting their unit to the fourth grade, Miss Hammill suggested that she handle the actual

teaching since it was unlikely that the necessary rapport between the children and a strange teacher or group of teachers could be established in so short a time. However, all members of the college U.N. class were able to observe the day-by-day development of the unit under Miss Hammill's leadership.

It is not the purpose here to detail the actual presentation or development of the unit. The barest outline will suffice.

The number of children in the fourth grade class varied from day to day between 20 and 24. The unit titled, "The United Nations and the Satisfaction of Basic Human Needs," was divided into five parts, one part for each of the five days allotted for the unit. Recreational periods were set aside during which the children learned a few Mexican and Chinese dances and games. Art and construction periods were included in the general plan.

The over-all objective of the unit was "To develop an understanding of the part the United Nations plays in the satisfaction of basic human needs."

The introductory period, one of informal discussion, was concerned with the discovery and listing of what the children thought to be needs common to all mankind. Among those suggested and discussed briefly were adequate "ways of obtaining food, clothing, shelter;" in addition such things as "transportation," with the implication of interdependence, and the "right to a way of making a living" were forthcoming. Each of these obviously begged for further inquiry. The period concluded with an explanation that the United Nations was established to help the peoples of the earth more adequately satisfy these needs.

On the second day, in order to illustrate the varying standards of living and methods of satisfying basic needs, China and Mexico were selected for comparative study with the United States. During the recreation period the children were introduced to a number of Chinese and Mexican games. This period was followed by the showing of two films, "Children of China," and "Mexican Children." The showing was preceded by a review of the basic needs as discussed the previous day. The children were asked to watch for and identify the ways in which basic needs are satisfied in the two countries. Brief discussion followed each film. The

objectives in using the films were: 1) Through visual experience to aid the children to gain a deeper insight into the cultures of Mexico and China as a background for study of the "basic-needs" function of the United Nations, 2) To gain an appreciation of the likeness and interdependence of all peoples regardless of locality or race.

The objectives for the third day were: 1) To develop desirable attitudes toward, interest in, and appreciation for international cooperation, 2) To encourage the understanding that no nation is wholly self-sufficient, and 3) To show the imperative need for international cooperation.

The period began with a review of the films. Suggestions were solicited from the children as to how the United Nations could help the Mexican and Chinese people to satisfy more adequately the basic needs. Miss Hammill read briefly from Tom Galt's *How The United Nations Works* a passage which emphasized the need for united action if these needs were to be met. The Economic and Social Council was explained to be a U.N. agency whose function was to assist all peoples in solving these problems, and in removing conditions which might lead to war.

The fourth day was devoted to a study of the United Nations organization. The objective was "To develop an understanding of the ways in which the United Nations helps people to satisfy basic human needs." Methods included readings from Galt, and from Lois Fisher's *You and the United Nations*. Displays of charts and photos of the General Assembly and the Security Council in session livened the discussion. The readings indicated the functions of the principal organs, explained the activities of such agencies as UNESCO and WHO, and described how the language problem was overcome through the process of simultaneous translation; the photos and charts illustrated these functions and activities.

An additional activity period on the fourth day included such things as displays of foreign stamps, coins, clothing, etc., brought by the pupils, and with the aid of toothpicks and putty, the placing of small paper flags of member nations in their proper place on a global map.

The final period was used to review the learning experiences of the previous four days.

Since all members of the college United Nations class were able to observe the daily development of the unit in the fourth grade, it was possible for them to participate vicariously at least in both the learning and teaching process. Each member submitted a daily evaluation, and in this way was able to crystallize his impressions for later study and analysis with a view to possible modification in the unit plan and presentation.

EVALUATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS COURSE

The lessons learned in conducting the experiment were very valuable as a basis for strengthening the course. In analyzing the effectiveness of the course, one can determine certain weaknesses. They divide themselves between the two general areas of the course, the college area and the elementary area. With regard to the latter, perhaps the most glaring weakness was the very limited period of five days allotted for teaching the unit. Plans for future summer sessions are now under way to extend the course to a full quarter in length so that perhaps fifteen to twenty days or more may be used in working with the elementary school pupils.

Consideration is being given also to both a vertical and horizontal expansion of the summer program within the elementary school. The former would bring additional grade levels into the project; the latter would broaden the course by making the study of the United Nations the core of the summer program for each grade level. These modifications would enable more of the college students to participate in the teaching phases of the unit.

Another obvious weakness was the absence of standards or techniques of evaluating what the fourth graders had learned. Here again the time factor was important, since the unit was not taught until the last five days of the school term. Future projects will include time for the construction of a schedule of evaluating techniques, the application of these techniques, and periodic group (college) discussion of the results. This procedure might well become one of the most valuable contributions of the course.

One other modification in the teaching of the unit in the elementary school would allow for a greater number and variety of pupil activities. Without elaborating further, it is plain that the United Nations will become more meaningful to the pupils if they have an opportunity

to manipulate materials, engage in creative activities, and organize themselves for their own group projects.

A final criticism, and perhaps one of the most important, is that the fourth grade pupils were not able to participate in the organization of the unit as much as was desired. This could be remedied also if there were more time.

At the college end of the project weaknesses were likewise apparent. One of the most serious was the inability of the college students (most were experienced teachers) to work together effectively on a common problem. Leadership of a sort appeared within each of the four groups, but in most instances it was not effective in eliciting the maximum of individual and group productivity. Much valuable time was wasted, and much profitless effort could have been avoided if the members of the college class had been more familiar with group dynamics and the techniques of reaching agreement and solving a common problem. An attempt will be made to render this problem less critical in future planning.

Another obstacle, if not a weakness of the project, was the ignorance of some of the students of the problems and methods of constructing a unit of work. Consequently their contributions to their respective groups was rather limited. Since the United Nations course is not designed nor intended to encompass all of the areas of professional training, this is likely to be a recurrent problem. It may be possible, however, to provide time for a cursory review of unit construction methods.

In spite of the obstacles encountered, the college class unanimously felt that it was a valuable experience. Some members of the class have reported on the enthusiasm with which their projects have been received in their own schools. Most of the students were frank in their criticism of the course, and offered valuable suggestions for improving it. There was agreement that there is a great need for such courses in teacher training institutions.

Taking into account this need, and the experience so far gained, it is anticipated that this course and others like it will contribute more effectively toward making the United Nations meaningful to the college students and to the children they will teach.

World History by Units for Secondary Schools

WINIFRED B. FOSTER

James S. Deady Junior High School, Houston, Texas

UNIT IV. MEDIEVAL HISTORY: THE MIDDLE AGES. 3 Weeks.

Specific Aims:

1. An understanding of the importance of the Middle Ages in the onward march of civilization.
2. An understanding of the meaning and importance of feudalism.
3. An understanding of the importance of the Medieval Church.
4. An understanding of how modern nations began.
5. An understanding of English beginnings of many of our institutions.
6. An understanding of the importance of the Crusades.
7. An understanding of the importance of the development of towns.

Introduction:

With the fall of Rome, Ancient history with its empires comes to an end. We are now beginning the period of a thousand years between Ancient history and Modern history. Modern history began with the discovery of new worlds about 1500. This period of a thousand years between the Ancient and the Modern, lasting from 500 to 1500, is known as Medieval history or the Middle Ages. It stands as the connecting link between the old and the new.

Usually this period is thought of as the Dark Ages—a period of warfare, disorder, confusion, and general destruction of the civilization which the early empires had built. It is true that during the first 500 years of this period there was general disorder and destruction on the part of the German barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire. This first 500 years was the Dark Ages. But as the barbarians mixed with the Romans they became civilized, at the same time importing new blood and new ideas to a degenerating people. During the

second half of this period, then, the barbarians settled down, mixed with the other peoples, and formed nations.

So we see that the Middle Ages was an important stage in the development and spread of civilization. Civilization may have received a temporary set-back, but in the end it blossomed anew and out of the Middle Ages came national development, modern languages, great universities, a strong Christian church.

Outline Survey of Unit:

BARBARIAN INVASIONS

- I. German conquests
 - A. Europe overrun
 - B. Huns driven back
 - C. Fall of Rome—476—approximate beginning of Middle Ages
 - D. Franks in Gaul
 - E. Angles and Saxons in England
 - F. Eastern empire carries on—till 1453—approximate end of Middle Ages

II. Frankish Empire—"the light in the Dark Ages."

- A. Leaders—Clovis, Charles Martel, Pepin, Charlemagne
- B. Breakup of Charlemagne's empire
 1. Weakness of his heirs
 2. Vikings

III. Feudalism.

- A. Definition—system of land holding in which lords own the land and vassals till the soil for lords in return for protection
 1. Duties of vassals
 2. Duties of lords
- B. Organization
- C. Warfare, knighthood, chivalry
 1. Page
 2. Squire
 3. Knight
- D. Decline of feudalism
 1. Kings become powerful
 2. Cities and towns buy freedom

Editor's Note: This is the second group of units in an eleven-unit outline for a one-year World History course for high schools. Other units will appear in succeeding issues.

3. Plagues reduce workers—others demand freedom
4. Gunpowder
5. Crusades

MEDIEVAL CHURCHES

- I. Christian—Catholic—universal
 - A. Establishment of the Church
 1. Christ's commission
 2. Peter and Paul
 3. Centers—Rome, Constantinople, Antioch, Jerusalem, Alexandria
 - a. Bishop of Rome—Pope
 - B. Teachings of the Church
 1. Fatherhood of God
 2. Brotherhood of man
 3. Eternal life
 - C. Missionaries
 1. St. Patrick—Ireland
 2. St. Augustine—England
 3. St. Boniface—Germany
 - D. Monks and Nuns
 1. How they came to be
 2. Their work
 - a. Farming
 - b. Shelter for strangers and poor
 - c. Converting heathen
 - d. Education
 - (1) Training teachers, preachers, missionaries
 - (2) Copying books
- II. Mohammedan—Islam
 - A. Life of Mohammed
 1. Birth—Mecca
 2. Death and burial—Medina
 - B. Teachings
 1. Repeat creed
 2. Pray
 3. Give alms
 4. Fast
 5. Visit Mecca
 - C. Spread—stopped at Constantinople and Tours
 - D. Definitions
 1. Islam
 2. Allah
 3. Moslems
 4. Crescent
 5. Koran
 6. Caliph
 7. Mosque
 8. Moors
 - E. Gifts to world

1. Fruits, foods — oranges, lemons, melons sugar, dates
2. Farming—fertilization of soil, rotation of crops
3. Manufacturing — muslin, morocco leather, glass, metal, silk, carpets
4. Education — mathematics (algebra), chemistry, astronomy
5. Moorish architecture

NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- I. Germany
 - A. Origin of Holy Roman Empire
 - B. Why German nation not formed
 1. Holy Roman Empire prevents
 2. Jealousy of provinces
- II. France
 - A. How England came to own most of France
 - B. Philip Augustus wins lands back
 1. Struggles with England
 2. Power of nobles reduced—feudalism going
 3. Estates General set up — clergy, nobles, commons
 - C. Hundred Years War 1346-1453—last hundred years of Middle Ages
 1. Cause—English kings claim France
 2. Events—Joan of Arc
 3. Results—England gives up claim to French throne
- III. England
 - A. Early people
 1. Natives—Celts, Picts, Scots
 2. Romans—mostly soldiers
 3. German barbarians—Angles, Saxons, Jutes
 - B. Early rulers—mostly Saxon
 1. Egbert—united all England
 2. Alfred the Great
 - a. Held back the Danes—Danelaw, Danegeld
 - b. Peace and order
 - c. Translated books and built schools
 - d. Built churches and monasteries
 - e. Started navy—England mistress of seas many centuries
 3. Canute—Danish king who ruled all England
 4. Edward the Confessor—Westminster Abbey
 - C. Normans and Plantagenets
 1. William the Conqueror defeated

- Harold—1066—Hastings
 - a. Strong government
 - b. Domesday Book
 - 2. Henry I—Charter of Liberties
 - 3. Henry II
 - a. Grand jury—investigating
 - b. Petit jury—trial
 - 4. John—England's worst King
 - a. Quarrel with people—had to sign Great Charter
 - (1) No tax without consent of Great Council
 - (2) Merchants free to come and go without tolls
 - (3) Fines must be just and honestly levied
 - (4) No imprisonment or loss of property without trial
 - (5) Person's property not taken away without payment
 - b. Quarrel with King of France—lost Normandy
 - c. Quarrel with Pope—England under interdict
 - 5. Importance of Norman conquest
 - a. New blood—ideas in architecture, occupations, arts
 - b. Improved language—French added
 - c. Increased trade with Europe
 - d. Brought Church closer to the Pope
 - 6. Development of Parliament
 - a. The Great Council—clergy and nobles
 - b. Montfort's Parliament — clergy, nobles, Commons (irregular)
 - c. Model Parliament—clergy, nobles, Commons (regular)
 - d. Parliament divided into House of Lords and House of Commons located at Westminster, now part of London
 - 7. Edward I attempts union
 - a. Conquest of Wales
 - b. Attempts to conquer Scotland—Robert Bruce
 - D. Wars of the Roses—Lancaster *vs.* York
 - E. Tudors—Henry VII—got along with Parliament
 - 1. Shrewd and business-like—kept expenses down
 - 2. Avoided costly wars
 - 3. Business and trade increased
 - 4. Laws favored middle class
- CRUSADES AND TOWNS BRING ABOUT EMERGENCE FROM MIDDLE AGES**
- I. Crusades
 - A. Cause of crusades—Jerusalem captured by Turks, and Eastern Roman Emperor appealed to Pope for aid
 - B. Why people went on crusades
 - 1. God's will
 - 2. Adventure
 - 3. Discontented nobles want land
 - 4. Merchants want new business
 - 5. Pardon for sins
 - C. Results of Crusades
 - 1. Growth of towns and business
 - 2. Growth of manufacturing
 - 3. Agriculture stimulated
 - 4. Rise of middle class
 - 5. Trade between East and West develops—Europe wants Eastern products—America discovered in searching for new way to East
 - II. Growth of Towns and Trade
 - A. How towns reappeared
 - 1. At crossroads or river crossings
 - 2. At monasteries or castles
 - 3. About factories
 - B. Towns become independent—charters
 - C. Hindrances to business
 - 1. Lack of money
 - 2. Tolls and small payments
 - 3. Danger on land and sea—robbers and pirates
 - D. Business organizes
 - 1. Craft guilds (bakers, tanners, weavers, goldsmiths)—similar to labor unions today
 - a. Apprentice
 - b. Journeyman
 - c. Master
 - 2. Merchant guilds—similar to Chambers of Commerce today
 - E. European trade
 - 1. Hanseatic League—70 German towns—controlled trade of North
 - 2. Italian cities—Genoa, Venice, Naples, Florence, Milan—controlled Southern trade
 - F. How business enterprise led to voyages of discovery
 - 1. Crusaders — aroused interest and trade

2. Polos—aroused interest and trade
3. Turks—made old routes dangerous
- G. Nations take lead in finding new routes
 1. Portugal—around Africa
 2. Spain—westward across Atlantic

Suggested Class Activities:

1. Text reading as basis of discussion
2. Map study
3. Class development of some parts of outline
4. Class discussions based on outline
5. Oral reports on outside readings
6. Slides, films, filmstrips on Medieval life, churches, castles, monasteries, cathedrals—if available

Suggested Home Work Activities:

1. Map of German Invasions. Show the routes of the migration of the peoples.
2. Map of the German Kingdoms. Name and color the early kingdoms formed by different German tribes.
3. Map—Spread of Mohammedanism. Name kingdoms, bodies of water, large rivers. Color Moslem conquests at their greatest extent.
4. Map—Europe 1000 A.D. Name and color German Kingdoms. Show outline of Holy Roman Empire (Western Roman Empire at first).
5. Map—Voyages of Discovery
6. Chart—Organization of Feudalism
7. Drawing of a Feudal Manor
8. Read some of the library references. See posted list.
9. Prepare reports on any of the following topics:
 - Early Christian missionaries
 - Life of Mohammed
 - Joan of Arc
 - England's Liberty Documents
 - Robert Bruce
 - Children's Crusade
 - Marco Polo
10. Comparison of Bible and Koran
11. Chart showing comparative strength of Jews, Christians and Moslems today.
12. Feudal Courts.

UNIT V. BEGINNINGS OF THE MODERN WORLD. 4 Weeks.

Specific Aims:

1. An understanding of how the transition from Medieval to Modern times took place.

2. An understanding of the meaning and importance of the Renaissance.
 - a. Understanding the scientific method
 - b. Understanding the origin of universities
3. An understanding of the origin and growth of nations.
4. An understanding of the meaning and importance of the Reformation.
5. An understanding of the meaning and importance of the Catholic Counter-Reformation.

Introduction:

We have finished our study of the Middle Ages. Now we should begin Modern history. But the transition from Medieval to Modern times was gradual, not sudden. We cannot say that just in this certain year Medieval times ended and the Modern began. In this unit you will study the forces which brought about the gradual transition to Modern times—the Renaissance, the development of nations, the Reformation. And when this unit of study is over you will look out upon a changed world, a modern world—feudalism gone, the Holy Roman Empire practically at an end, most national boundary lines fairly well established, a new church.

Outline Survey of Unit:

MEDIEVAL LEARNING AND THE RENAISSANCE

I. Beginning of Modern languages in the Middle Ages

A. Importance of Latin—language of Roman Empire

1. Church services and Bible in Latin
2. Civil law and Roman law in Latin
3. Learned books written in Latin
4. Used in communication between people and countries, between Pope and clergy, monks and students, letters to one another

B. How our Modern languages developed

1. Spoken Latin of soldiers, merchants, common people—from this came the Romance languages — Spanish, French, Italian, Portuguese
2. German dialects—from these grew German, English (Anglo-Saxon), Dutch, Scandinavian

II. Medieval Science

A. Natural Sciences

1. Astronomy—study of stars
2. Geology—study of earth

3. Botany—study of plants
 4. Zoology—study of animals
 5. Physics—properties and behavior of matter
 6. Chemistry—elements of matter
 - B. Medieval Science—based on fear, hearsay, belief in magic and miracles
 - C. Scientific method—examining data (testing, weighing, experimenting, measuring) and basing conclusions only on precise knowledge
- III. The First Universities
- A. Origin—union of professors to protect interests
 - B. Locations
 1. Paris—theology
 2. Bologna—law
 3. Oxford and Cambridge—philosophy, astronomy, medicine
 4. Others in France, Italy, Spain, Germany
 - C. Stages of learning
 1. Students—ages 13-40
 2. Bachelor—bachelor's degree given when part of work was passed, with permission to teach certain elementary subjects
 3. Master—Master's degree given
 - a. Study 6 years, be 20 years old
 - b. Take examination
 - c. Admission to guild
 - D. Characteristics
 1. Buildings—none at first—lectures held in hired halls, students sit on floor
 2. Books—few—no printing
 3. Method—teacher read from his book, line by line, commenting as he went along—students copy words
 4. Language—all lectures and discussions in Latin
 5. Departments—liberal arts, law, medicine, theology
 6. Influence of Aristotle—his words taught in all subjects—accepted as supreme authority in philosophy and science
- IV. Invention
- A. Hindrances
 1. Little scientific apparatus
 2. Widespread tendency to accept statements of ancients
 - B. Progress in different lines
 1. Method—Roger Bacon urges free experiment, study common everyday things instead of studying ancients, predicts great inventions
 2. Inventions
 - a. Mirrors, lenses—spectacles, microscopes, telescopes
 - b. Compass—find way at sea
 - c. Astrolabe—sextant—find positions of ships by observing sun and stars
 - d. Gunpowder—sulphur, saltpeter, charcoal
 - e. Printing—with movable type, print different types of letters
 - f. Paper making—learned from Chinese by Arabs
 3. Leaders
 - a. Copernicus—solar system, sun as center—condemned by both Catholics and Protestants
 - b. Galileo—mathematician, scientist, lecturer, writer, inventor—improved telescope, solar system advanced—condemned and imprisoned—died 1642
 - c. Newton—born 1642—law of gravitation
- V. Artists—Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, Raphael
- FORMATION OF NATIONS
- I. England—William the Conqueror 1066—a united country
 - II. France—drove English out by Hundred Years' War, conquered nobles
 - III. Spain
 - A. 1469—union of Isabella of Castille to Ferdinand of Aragon unites land
 - B. 1492—took lead in discovery and trade, New World wealth
 - C. Bad policies
 1. Drove out Jews and Arabs—most skillful and industrious
 2. Inquisition revived—thousands burned at stake
 - IV. Portugal—sea power
 - A. Independent of Spain since 1263
 - B. 1498—reached India—controlled trade to Far East—da Gama
 - C. Led in business enterprise, explorations, discoveries

- V. Netherlands—formed but not independent—Austria and Spain
- VI. Turkish Empire (Ottoman Empire)—big empire till World War I
 - A. Constantinople—1453
 - B. Cut off old trade routes
- VII. Germanies—200-300 of them—divided country
 - A. Holy Roman Empire—emperors try to hold Italian states
 - B. Rulers of provinces jealous of each other
- VIII. Italian states — no union — hopelessly divided
 - A. Italian cities always quarrelling among themselves
 - B. Pope owned much land he didn't wish to give up
 - C. Emperors always fighting to keep Italian states
- IX. Russia
 - A. Earliest Russia—Northman (Rus or Ros), Poles, Bohemians, Moravians, Slovaks, Lithuanians, Serbs, Croats, Bulgars.
 - B. Russia overrun
 - 1. Huns—Attila—from Asia
 - 2. Mongols—Genghis Khan of China
 - a. Tribute to Mongol Court
 - b. Russia imitates Khan and becomes Eastern and backward
 - C. Russia becomes a nation
 - 1. Ivan the Great—conquers all tribes—rule from Moscow
 - 2. Michael—first of Romanoffs—300 years to 1917
 - D. Russia becomes modern—Western
 - 1. Peter I, the Great—grandson of Michael, most noted
 - a. Westernizes Russia — learns in Europe, establishes absolutism
 - b. Gains seaport—war with Sweden
 - 2. Catherine the Great
 - a. More seaports—region around Black Sea
 - b. More land—Poland divided
- X. Austria—in Holy Roman Empire—many different peoples
- XI. Prussia—in Holy Roman Empire at first
 - A. Gradually becomes largest of the Germanies

B. Gradually becomes powerful apart from Empire

C. Partition of Poland by Russia, Prussia, Austria

1. Poland's weaknesses

a. Vast plain hard to defend—no natural boundaries

b. Government weak — king no power, nobles could veto

c. No strong national army

2. Three partitions — Poland disappears from map

BREAKUP AND REFORM OF MEDIEVAL CHURCH REFORMATION

I. The Church universal—Catholic

A. Power of the Church

1. Sole means of salvation

2. Provided education and relief

3. Ruled and controlled vast lands

4. Had own system of law, own courts and lawyers and prisons

B. Organization of the Church

1. Pope—supreme lawgiver, set aside laws, grant dispensations, supreme judge, appoint cardinals

2. Cardinals—70—appointed by Pope to aid in supervision of churches, elect Popes

3. Clergy

a. Archbishop—at head of provinces

b. Bishop—at head of diocese

c. Priest—at head of local church or parish

4. Inquisition—court to try heretics

a. Imprisonment and torture forces confession

b. Received back into Church if heresy renounced, but still imprisoned for life to cleanse from sin

c. Burned at stake if heresy continues

II. Religious Orders—mendicant friars—begging brothers

A. The Franciscans

B. The Dominicans

III. Revolt against the Church begins

A. Kings and Pope as rivals

1. King got no money from Church lands or clergy—taxes

2. Who should select bishops and abbots—and receive their gifts

3. King got no fees from Church courts
4. Pope considered more powerful than Kings
- B. "The Babylonian Captivity" of Popes—60 years—weakens Papal influence in other countries
- C. Evils in the Church
 1. Clergy did not always practice what they preached—more interested in wealth and property than religion
 2. People not allowed to read Bible for themselves
 3. Granting of indulgences — partial pardons for sin
 4. Popes had too much political and religious power
- D. Forerunners of the Reformation
 1. John Wycliffe—translated Bible into English
 2. John Huss—Bohemia—"don't obey sinful clergy"—burned
 3. Erasmus—Dutch — "Read your Bible."
- IV. Revolt in Germany—universal Church breaks up
 - A. Causes
 1. Dissatisfaction with Pope—wanted German money to stay at home. What did Pope do with money?
 2. Luther opposes indulgences
 - a. 95 theses against indulgences—need faith in God and true repentance for forgiveness from sin
 - b. Luther excommunicated and papal bull (letter) burned
 - c. Edict of Worms—Luther an outlaw to be seized
 - d. Luther in hiding translates Bible into German
 3. Lutheran Church creed adopted
 - B. Civil War between Emperor and nobles who wish to decide religion of their provinces
 - C. Settlement—each prince, town, or knight free to choose between Catholic and Lutheran
- V. Revolt in Switzerland
 - A. Formation of Switzerland
 1. Part of Holy Roman Empire
 2. Union of 3 cantons against Hapsburgs
 3. Others join—22 now
 4. Union breaks from Empire—German, French, Italian
 - B. Zwingli—denied authority of Pope; Bible the sole guide
 1. Disorder and civil war follow
 2. Zwingli killed in battle
 3. Each canton free to choose its own religion
 - C. John Calvin
 1. First complete statement of Protestant principles
 2. Presbyterian church organized — presbyters
- VI. Revolt in England—Tudor kings
 - A. Henry VIII—England breaks from Rome, but still Catholic
 1. Failing to win Pope—secretly marries Anne Boleyn—excommunicated
 2. Act of Supremacy—king the head of English Church, king appoint all clergy, receive all money
 3. Monasteries dissolved—sold to nobles —king wants money
 - B. Edward VI—England becomes Protestant
 1. Reformers brought over
 2. Protestants in high positions
 3. Clergy free to marry
 4. No more masses for dead
 5. General destruction of shrines and images
 - C. Mary—Catholicism again
 1. Parliament repeals all acts separating England from Pope
 2. Mary marries Spanish prince
 3. Pope restores England to Church
 4. "Bloody Mary"
 - D. Elizabeth—Protestantism permanently established
 1. Elizabeth not acceptable to Catholics
 2. Laws of Henry VIII and Edward VI revived, Mary's repealed
 3. Anglican Church set up—"Middle" church
 4. Dissenters—Protestants who didn't like Anglican church
 - a. Puritans
 - b. Separatists
 5. Mary Stuart—hope of Catholics—finally executed
 6. Spanish Armada—Philip II defeated —England remains Protestant

CATHOLIC COUNTER-REFORMATION

I. The Catholic Church reforms to hold its people

A. Reforms

1. More services in the language of the people
2. Prohibited sale of church offices, charging fees for administering sacraments, indulgences
3. Bishops and clergy live in own districts—devote themselves to spiritual tasks
4. Pope should appoint only men of piety and learning to office

B. Catholic principles retained

1. Traditions, Pope's authority, forms and ceremonies
2. People should not read Bible for themselves—interpretation belongs to Church

C. Jesuits—Society of Jesus—Loyola—obey orders of Pope

1. Object—promote piety and love of God through example
2. Preaching and hearing confessions
3. Opened schools and seminaries
4. Missionaries throughout world

D. Methods used to hold people

1. Index to be prepared—list of forbidden books
2. Inquisition revived

II. Wars in France

A. France remains Catholic

B. Protestants increase and civil war keeps up—Huguenots want religious toleration and more responsible government

C. Edict of Nantes

1. Huguenots have private worship everywhere, public worship in certain places
2. Government support to Protestant schools, publication of Protestant books
3. Protestants have political and civil rights, hold offices

III. Wars in Germany

A. Northern Germany becomes mostly Protestant

B. Southern Germany remains Catholic

IV. Results of All Wars

A. Northern Europe Protestant and Southern Europe Catholic

B. End of Holy Roman Empire practically acknowledged

C. All religions worship equally—Catholic, Lutheran, Presbyterian

Suggested Class Activities:

1. Text reading as basis of discussion
2. Map drill
3. Class development of some topics in outline
4. Class discussions based on outline
5. Oral reports on outside readings, if any
6. Films, filmstrips, or slides—if available

Suggested Home Work Activities:

1. Map—Europe on the Threshold of Modern Times. Name countries, large rivers, bodies of water. Color the countries.
2. Book reports on outside readings.
3. Reports on any of the following topics:
How modern languages developed
Influence of Aristotle
Roger Bacon
Copernicus
Galileo
Newton
Italian Painters
Vasco da Gama
Genghis Khan
Peter the Great
Partitions of Poland
The Inquisition
Loyola
Any of the Church leaders
Wives of Henry VIII
Mary Stuart
Lady Jane Grey
The Spanish Armada
Prince Henry and his school of navigation

Private Schools and Democracy

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES for December, 1950, carried an article entitled "Is the American School System Democratic?" by Ethel S. Beer. The point discussed in the article was whether or not the existence of private schools really fits in with the democratic conception of education. Private schools as the writer understands them are those schools which make an appeal to the people of better economic means and which accordingly charge a relatively high tuition. She specifically excludes parochial schools which charge only a nominal fee, but includes those religious schools which are selective and charge higher tuition. The burden of the article is to show that the existence of private schools is undemocratic and somehow an obstacle to the development of a better public school system.

It might be well to start off by taking a look at just how many children are enrolled in these private schools. There are no direct statistics available which group together all such pupils. We can, however, arrive at a fairly close estimate. The "Biennial Survey of Education in the United States," published by the Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, for the year 1945-46, page 18, lists the total number of pupils in public schools on both the elementary and the secondary level at 23,299,941. On page 94 the total enrollment in private and parochial schools for the same period is given as 2,824,500. Since the largest part of this group is made up of children who attend Catholic parochial schools, we have to subtract their enrollment from the total. They number 2,371,541 according to THE OFFICIAL CATHOLIC DIRECTORY for the year 1946, chart following page 1325. Subtracting this figure from the total of 2,824,500 we have a net total of 452,959 children.

This represents the maximum number attending private schools, according to the classification given in the article. Actually, this number is too high since it includes those children attending Protestant and other religious

schools, which data I do not have. In comparison then, with the children attending public schools, the ratio is approximately 51 children in the public schools to every child in a private school. In discussing the question it is important to keep this in mind, since it is rather difficult to comprehend how a school system embracing approximately 51 times as many children as another group can be seriously affected by the latter.

Let us consider now some of the statements made in the article in THE SOCIAL STUDIES. After pointing out the wide divergence in educational opportunities throughout the country, the author asks, "If so, how about the private school? Does it not accentuate the problem? . . . Besides, would there not be more interest from the parents—which Dr. Fine stresses is so important for the improvement of the nation's schools—if all children went to the public school?" Again the article states, "With every boy and girl in the same school, it is reasonable to assume that the parents would put pressure on the authorities to raise the standards." This is certainly not very complimentary to the parents of the more than 23 million children in the public schools. Keep in mind that this group includes business, professional men, industrial leaders, statesmen, as well as others who occupy positions of leadership in the community. It assumes that they are so lacking in leadership and interest in their schools that they can't act until the parents of the children in private schools join them.

How valid is the assumption that parents of children who go to private schools have no interest in the public schools? In Cincinnati in recent years we had an illustration of the fact that this is not always so. Two of the most active members of the Cincinnati Board of Education were men whose children went to private schools.

As a matter of fact, definite movements are under way in this country to interest the lay public in the public schools. The formation

of the Citizens' Committee for the Improvement of Public Schools is a movement on a national scale. *LIFE* magazine for October 16, 1950, gave an excellent account of how in one community a group of citizens became interested in its public schools. It took a few interested citizens to get things started. The solution to the problem of greater lay interest in the public schools lies in energetic leadership and not merely in hoping that such will come automatically if all children are in the public schools.

The article contains a number of statements which seem to imply that the public schools suffer because of the existence of private schools. For example, "Along with other features in the private educational program which the publicly supported school cannot hope to duplicate is the low pupil-teacher ratio." A little later it points out that the largest concentration of these private schools is in New York.

The facts do not seem to bear out the contention that the public schools suffer as a result of fairly heavy concentration of private schools. The *CONGRESSIONAL DIGEST* for November, 1949, page 266, offers some statistics on this point. Although New York spends only 1.5 per cent of its income on public elementary and secondary schools, the amount of available wealth is such that it can pay one of the highest salary schedules in the country. The average salary is listed as \$3,450 (probably higher now), which is second only to that of California and Arizona which both average \$3,500. In terms of pupils per teacher the average is 22.8, which is certainly not high for a heavily populated state. In California it is 31.3, the highest in the country. Just how much difference in the size of classes would there be in New York if all the children and teachers now in private schools were in public schools? Probably very little, and even less in the rest of the country.

There is another point on which I should like to comment. It is found in this quotation: "The mingling of children of all races, creeds, and levels of society has deeper implications than just theoretical learning about democracy. The public school offers this opportunity through daily contacts in school and through the meeting of boys and girls from other backgrounds." The argument is that in the public schools there is represented every class and

level of society, socially, economically, culturally, and otherwise. Hence the children attending the public schools get the benefit of these many sided contacts.

There is a fallacy in this reasoning. The fallacy is implied in one of the statements of Justice Botein, whom the author quotes with approval several times, although it is not developed at length. Justice Botein says: "It is not contended that the student population of any one school, public or private, represents more than a cross section of the community served by that school." This is the crux of the matter. On the elementary level the child will probably go to a school where the children are pretty much from the same social and economic level. If he lives down town he doesn't meet the children from the suburbs; if he attends a city school he doesn't have contact with country children. On the high school level his contacts will be wider, since the high school ordinarily draws from a larger area. On the other hand, not all children in private schools have the same racial, religious, economic, and social backgrounds. In some boarding schools, children from a number of foreign countries will be found, offering unusual contacts for American children.

Throughout the article there seems to be evidenced a socialistic point of view which would solve the problems of life by removing all inequalities and reducing everyone to a common level. Consider this statement: "Public schools are districted for the most part, particularly the primary schools. Hence, children with few exceptions attend the school nearest their home, no matter what are the qualifications. In contrast the private school has no residential restrictions, which gives the parents a choice." If I understand this correctly, it means that parents who send their children to a private school have an advantage over those whose children attend the public school, in that the former can choose a school for their children, whereas the latter cannot. Just what would be gained for American life as a whole if the private school children were deprived of this advantage just because public school children do not have it? If there be any advantage to such a system, why not make such choices available in the public school system where it is possible and feasible? As a matter of fact,

this is done in Cincinnati where the classical high school is open to students from all parts of the city if they can meet its entrance requirements.

Here is another: "Instead of sponsoring private schools and paying for individual children's tuition, personal funds should expand and improve the services of the public school." It is well to keep in mind that the persons who send their children to private schools also pay their full share of taxes for the public schools. Just why should they be asked to give up their private schools and make additional personal contributions to the public schools? Unless, of course, the purpose is to reduce all people to one common level.

Here is another statement: "How can the broader concept of education—preparation for living together—be reached when school contacts are restricted by material advantages and class distinction?" Has any nation succeeded in wiping out all class distinction? Soviet Russia set out to do it, but already there is plenty of evidence of definite class distinction in Russia. The privileged classes are not the Czarist nobility of old, but the office holders of the new regime.

A thousand people may be working together in a factory, but what happens when the whistle blows at the end of the day's work? They disperse and go their separate ways. The president goes to his country estate, the foreman to his home in the suburbs, the drill press operator to his apartment in a government sponsored project. They select their own circle of friends, and each would feel ill at ease in a group of persons with widely different tastes and interests. This is life as it is lived, because it is based on some fundamental differences in people themselves. The age old dream of the Utopians and the Socialists to reduce all people to one level and to have all people living together as one big happy family with no distinctions has never worked and never will.

Are private schools undemocratic? This brings us to the final point. As to the justification of private schools this statement occurs:

"Frequently private schools are defended on two scores. They are needed to pioneer in education. Besides many of these schools are personal business ventures and as such deserve consideration." We may omit from consideration the second point. So far as pioneering in education is concerned, it is true that there have been some private schools specifically set up for educational experimentation. On the whole, however, I am inclined to think that the private schools are rather conservative and not given to much experimentation. Whatever educational advantage they offer is apt to be in terms of selected teachers, small classes, and good equipment.

Furthermore, is there anything intrinsic in the nature of public education which keeps it from experimenting? If I read educational literature correctly, it seems to me there is a great deal of this going on constantly in public schools throughout the country.

The point I wish to make, however, is that the main reason for the existence of private schools is quite apart from those mentioned above. It is the fact that they represent freedom of choice on the part of parents to educate their children. It is unfortunate that when President Roosevelt listed his four freedoms, he did not add another one—freedom of parents to direct the education for their children. This is just as basic as any of the others.

Unfortunately there is a tendency today on the part of not a few persons to deny this right. They would take away this freedom in the very name of democracy. Their contention, of course, is that democracy means that all children should be educated in the same system of schools, i.e., schools under state control. If the time should come in this country when all children are forced to go to public schools because no other kind is permitted to exist, then democracy as we know it will no longer prevail. We will have adopted the system of Hitler and Stalin, who after coming to power soon got rid of all private schools. Instead of being undemocratic the very existence of private schools is evidence that democracy still lives.

Elementary Semantics and the Social Studies Class

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All students of human behavior are agreed that man's ability to communicate with his fellows is the major unique fact which has permitted his advance far in excess of other animals. Most students of human behavior are also agreed that the major consistent deterrent to man's greater advance lies in the same area—in ineffective communication of ideas, principles and ambitions.

A brief glance at any of the many discussions which have developed within the framework of the United Nations impresses this fact beyond debate. The phrase "all men are created equal" was deleted from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights because some delegates felt that the words "all men," if taken literally, excluded women from the basic rights to equality. Hours on end have been expended at Lake Success in attempts to agree on the meaning of such words as "democracy," "freedom," "liberty," equality," and many more—and progress toward attainment of the basic objectives of the United Nations has been rapid or slow, depending upon semantic agreement. Everyone who engages in democratic discussion finds frequent stumbling blocks in such phrases as: "What do you mean?" and "Let's define our terms."

The study of semantics, defined by Dr. S. I. Hayakawa as "... the study of the ways in which human beings interact through the use of linguistic and other symbols . . .,"¹ should be included in every social studies program at every grade level at least to the point where there is elementary understanding of the fact that much human disagreement is on the verbal level and may not necessarily be a disagreement on basic principles.

One technique for word study, to a large extent borrowed from L. L. Thurstone and E. J. Chave,² has been used by the author in both secondary and college Social Studies classrooms and has helped materially in increasing semantic understanding.

The particular study reported herein devel-

oped as a result of accumulated classroom frustrations as discussions stumbled and became snarled in the customary: "Wait a minute—let's define our terms . . ." problems. The group, college freshmen in an introductory Social Science course, recognized the fact that they could not proceed until some agreements on precise meaning had been reached. A small committee of students met with the instructor and drew up a plan for attacking this problem by preparing a list of frequently used descriptive words which could be rated on a favor-disfavor scale and tested for degree of ambiguity.

THE MASTER LIST

Each member of the class was asked to prepare a list of twenty-five frequently used descriptive terms or phrases from which a master list of one hundred fifty-one words was prepared.

FINDING THE SCALE VALUE

Another group of students was invited to participate in the scale rating process so that a total of fifty "raters" was available. Each student was asked to assign a numerical value to each word according to the following five point scale:

NUMERICAL VALUE

WORD POSITION

- (1) A very desirable or very favorable word.
- (2) A fairly desirable or fairly favorable word.
- (3) A neutral word—doesn't mean much either way.
- (4) A fairly undesirable or fairly unfavorable word.
- (5) A very undesirable or very unfavorable word.

An average scale value for each word was easily determined by mathematical computation—by multiplying the numerical value assigned by the number of people assigning it; adding up the total; and dividing by fifty (the number of raters).

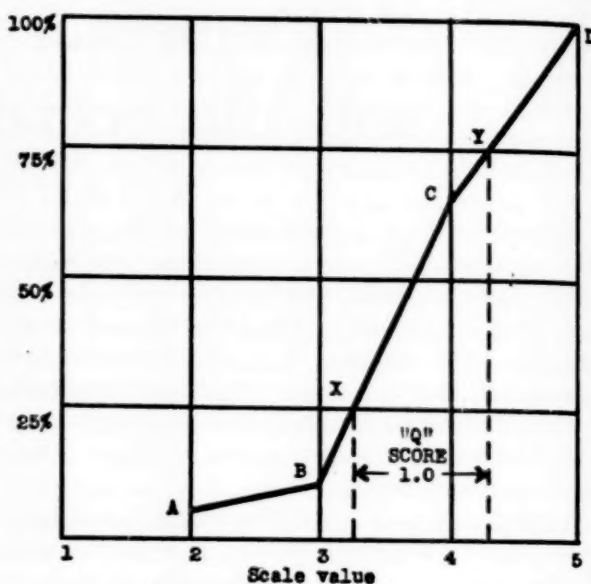
DETERMINING THE DEGREE OF AMBIGUITY

Although the process described below for finding the degree of ambiguity appears highly complicated, one or two attempts will show its relative simplicity. The technique used is fully described by Thurstone and Chave and uses the interquartile range as the basic ambiguity measure. A piece of graph paper (20 squares to the inch works well), a straight edge, and a sharp pencil are needed. The left hand vertical column (of any one inch block) is labeled "percentage" and is divided into four equal parts at the 25th, 50th, 75th, and 100th per cent points with the base line serving as 0. The base line is labeled "scale value" and is divided into five parts corresponding to the numerical value of the rating scale used. Percentages of the group assigning specific values are then charted on the graph.

The word "arrogant," for example, received a scale value rating of 4.4 with three people rating it (2), two rating it (3), twenty-three rating it (4) and twenty-three rating it (5). (None rated it (1).)

Three people (or 6% of the sample) rated the word (2)—so—a check is placed at the intersection of the 6% and (2) lines (Point A above). Two people (or 4%) rated the word (3) so that a check is placed at the intersection of the 10% and (3) lines (Point B). NOTE: *The checks are placed in a cumulative way—10% rated the word "arrogant" (3) or less. Twenty-three (or 56%) rated the word (4)—thus accumulating a total of 66% who rated the word (4) or less. A check is placed at the intersection of the 66% and (4) lines (Point C). The remainder of the group rated the word (5) so an accumulation of 100% rated the word (5) or less—a check is made at the intersection of the 100% and (5) lines (Point D) above.*

The checks are joined with a solid line—the intersection of this line with the 25th percentile line is indicated at Point X and the intersection of this line with the 75 percentile line is indicated as Point Y. Perpendiculars are dropped to the base line from points X and Y and the interquartile range or ambiguity score is read from the base line. In this case the difference between X and Y is 1.0. The "Q" value, as this score has been labeled, is thus 1.0. If the reader finds himself confused by



this process he should take a blank piece of graph paper and follow through the process—he will find it basically simple.

A "Q" score of 1.0 was selected by the experimenting group as the maximum allowable limit in terms of meaningfulness—words having a "Q" score of more than 1.0 were considered highly ambiguous. The smaller the "Q" score the more meaningful is the word. The word "intelligent," for example, has a "Q" value of .6—the group was in general agreement on the value position of the word. The word "humble," however, has a "Q" score of 1.3—it is too ambiguous to be readily understood by the group and should be avoided as a descriptive term.

CONCLUSIONS

No attempt has been made herein to report a complete analysis of the descriptive words used in this study. The reader may want to study the accompanying list carefully—and may want to use it to check the results of a similar study conducted in his or her classroom. The reader will note the predominance of negative words—an indication, perhaps, of a tendency on the part of people to describe things and people negatively rather than positively. Interesting comparisons of supposedly synonymous terms can be made. Although synonymous terms tend to cluster together, the word "courteous" is more to be desired than the term "well-mannered"—and both are more meaningful than the term "polite."

The main value of this type of study is in terms of student recognition of semantic difficulties. If we agree that effective communication is of primary importance in any walk of life it follows that experience in this process of word study will serve the very useful purpose of making students more aware of the importance of reading, writing, speaking, and listening critically. This technique offers much opportunity for correlation with the English classes in any school. You will find that students enjoy such analysis a great deal.

Scale Value	Word	"Q" Score	Scale Value	Word	"Q" Score
4.9	Bestial	.5	4.3	Frightening	1.1
	Cheat	.5		Pugnacious	1.1
	Deceitful	.6		Sly	1.1
4.8	Barbaric	.6		Stingy	1.1
	Criminal	.6		Vengeful	1.0
	Depraved	.6		Wanton	1.1
	Despicable	.7		Artificial	.7
	Dirty	.9		Distasteful	.9
	Dishonest	.6		Irritating	1.0
	Immoral	.6		Overbearing	1.1
	Merciless	.6		Sinful	1.3
	Treacherous	.5		Snobbish	1.0
4.7	Corrupt	.7		Ugly	1.1
	Cruel	.6		Ungrateful	.9
	Greedy	.8		Belligerent	1.1
	Savage	.7		Bitter	.9
	Shiftless	.7		Careless	.9
4.6	Barbarous	.9		Crude	1.1
	Brainless	.9		Foolish	1.0
	Cowardly	.7		Inferior	1.0
	Crazy	.9		Narrow	.9
	Disgusting	.9		Unstable	.9
	Fanatical	.9	4.1	High-handed	.9
	Feeble-minded	.7		Hot-headed	1.1
	Good-for-nothing	.9		Ridiculous	1.2
	Narrow-minded	1.0	4.0	Backward	1.0
	Ruthless	.7		Boisterous	1.1
	Stupid	.6		Helpless	1.4
	Unbearable	.9		Nonsensical	.9
	Uncouth	.9		Sickly	1.1
	Underhanded	.8		Sluggish	.7
	Undesirable	.9		Suspicious	.9
	Vulgar	.7		Uneducated	1.0
4.5	Coarse	1.0		Wasteful	.8
	Cold-blooded	.8	3.9	Boastful	.8
	Heartless	1.0		Clumsy	.8
	Horrid	1.0		Grasping	1.1
	Ignorant	1.0		Over-aggressive	.8
	Insulting	.9		Over-confident	.8
	Pitiless	1.1		Peculiar	.8
	Selfish	1.0		Tactless	1.0
	Terrifying	1.0		Weak	1.0
4.4	Annoying	1.0	3.8	Excitable	1.2
	Arrogant	1.0		Nervy	1.0
	Conceited	1.1	3.7	Pitiful	1.0
	Dangerous	1.2		Awkward	.7
	Decadent	1.2		Noisy	.8
			3.6	Sensual	1.6
				Hardboiled	1.3
				Sad	.7
				Unhappy	1.3
			3.5	Argumentative	1.0
			3.4	Old-fashioned	.9
			3.3	Poor	.9
			3.2	Emotional	.9
				Temperamental	1.1
			3.1	Mysterious	.8
				Talkative	.9
			3.0	Silent	.8
			2.9	Proud (overconfident)	1.1
			2.8	Conservative	1.0

Scale Value	Word	"Q" Score	Scale Value	Word	"Q" Score
2.7	Carefree	1.3		Cool-headed	1.4
	Easy-going	1.2		Law-abiding	1.0
	Reserved	.8		Polite	1.1
2.5	Religious	1.3		Practical	.7
2.3	Cautious	1.3		Sensible	1.0
2.2	Graceful	1.2	1.5	Energetic	.5
2.1	Serious	.9		Good-humored	1.1
1.9	Artistic	1.9		Healthy	.8
	Athletic	.8	1.4	Clear-headed	1.1
	Calm	.6		Efficient	.9
	Liberal	.9		Happy	.9
	Musical	1.2		Kindly	1.0
	Rational	.8		Well-mannered	.6
	Thrifty	.9	1.3	Cooperative	.9
1.8	Chivalrous	.9		Courteous	.8
	Clever	.9		Faithful	.8
	Patriotic	1.0		Generous	.8
1.7	Clean-cut	.7	1.2	Intelligent	.6
	Ethical	.6		Sincere	.7
	Neat	1.0	1.1	Loyal	.6
1.6	Ambitious	1.2		Trustworthy	.5
	Brave	.6			

¹ S. I. Hayakawa, "New Techniques of Agreement"—An address delivered at Colgate University, May 25th, 1950, at one of University Lectures in Human Relations.

² L. L. Thurstone, E. J. Chave, *The Measurement of Attitude*, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

The Teachers' Page

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There has been considerable debate in the past as to whether education should be pupil centered or society centered, as though the two were diametrically opposed to each other. It is part of the age old controversy centering around individualism and collectivism. The very nature of society and its institutions—government, church, school, family—seems to be predicated, in the minds of many people, upon the assumption that the aims of society are more important than the aims of the individual. The concept of "state" and the many other concepts associated with it, such as "nationalism," "patriotism," "loyalty," "sacrifice," seem to connote meanings that place greater value upon group rather than individual welfare. Historically, we have seen, dictatorships have always tended in the direction of elevating the worth of the state at the expense of the individual. Fortunately, the concept of democracy is more concerned with the dignity and happiness of the individual—with the unalienable right of every person to pursue "life, liberty, and happiness."

But, are individualism and collectivism really incompatible? Not if one regards the collective unit as the agent whose function it is to promote the well-being of the individual. Spencer's concept of society as a super-organic entity is not fully accepted by sociologists and anthropologists.

The case for the psychological reality of culture rests largely on the undesirability of dividing human experience so that man, the organism, is conceptually set off from those aspects of his behavior that make up his super-organic elements of his existence. Any culture observed over the years, it is true, is seen to have a vitality that transcends the life of any member of the group that manifests it. Yet, on the other hand, without man, culture could not exist. Therefore, to objectify a phenomenon that can have no manifestation except in human thought and action is to argue a separate existence for something that actually exists only in the mind of the student.¹

Nor are Le Bon's concept of the group mind

and Hegel's concept of the state regarded as deserving of greater devotion than the individual.

A somewhat different kind of over simplification, and one that leads to mystical ideas of the relations of the individual and society, is that which was ponderously propounded by the German metaphysician Hegel. It, too, is based upon a failure to realize that the term 'society' refers to an abstraction. Hegel personified the many, varied and complex behaviors of peoples that we abstractly designate society and treated the state (the apex of social organization) as though it were a single, homogeneous entity . . . The final result was what has been called the 'group-mind fallacy.' It involved the mystical idea that human beings through association with one another generate a sort of collective (group) mind or spirit, which in turn directs and coordinates the behavior of the individual members of the society. This 'group-mind' is presumed to secure its physical manifestations in the person of the leader of the state, who must, naturally be obeyed without question . . .²

The whole of society and its institutions exist not for the purpose of restricting individual freedom and happiness but to aid him in securing as much of them as possible—at least to a greater degree than he would without the existence of the collective unit. In education, also, the aim of society and of the pupil are not divergent. In terms of both individual and social well-being they are identical. Teaching, consequently must take into consideration the needs of students who are being taught, which are determined, in large measure, by the demands made upon them by the cultural environment.

Good teaching assumes effective learning in terms of desired aims or objectives. Educational psychology has demonstrated that learning is the result of experience. Since there is continuous interaction between the individual and his environment some learning, however small, is constantly taking place in every individual. What then is the purpose of teaching? Its function is to modify learning and give it direction. Learning that results from experience may be good or bad. Practice doesn't make perfect if one practices the wrong way.

Selectivity of experiences is essential to desirable learning. Good teaching is concerned with good selectivity of experience—organization of activities that will most effectively yield the desired outcomes.

Broadly conceived, selectivity of experiences is all there is to good teaching, for good selectivity implies awareness of and consideration for pupil readiness, interests and abilities. Narrowly conceived, selectivity may reflect only the thinking of the teacher. However worthy its purpose, it may prove just as futile as leading a horse that is not thirsty to water. It is factual that human beings react to needs which psychologists have termed drives or urges. People seek food when they are hungry and rest when they are tired. They do many other things because of inner compulsions. Not all human drives are, overtly at least, purely biologic tensions. There are many urges that we classify as cultural in nature such as wanting to paint, to listen to music, to play football or to hear a lecture. The degree and nature of the transformation (sublimation) of biologic urges to culturally felt needs is the result of experience and training, both consciously and unconsciously directed. There can be, therefore, hit-or-miss, controlled or uncontrolled sublimation. The function of the teacher (as one agent of society) desirable goals. In educational terms, this is known as motivation. Broadly conceived, motivation is in a sense directed sublimation.

How this can be accomplished through teaching is the very essence of method. Yet, there is no simple clear-cut approach. Teaching is a way of doing things. Whether it is good or bad teaching depends largely on the teacher—his personality and the resources he has at his command. Whether teachers are born is a moot question. The good and bad teacher are both made in the world of life. Like living, teaching does not take place in a vacuum. It involves the personality of the teacher as well as the varying personalities of the pupils.

It is generally admitted that one of the principal difficulties that has been encountered by teachers is that of lack of motivation and interest to learn on the part of pupils. John Dewey's efforts in behalf of making education less a preparation for life and more life itself aimed at correcting this condition. Yet, however desirable that principle is to method, the fact

cannot be escaped that many phases of a child's schooling must be in the nature of preparation for future living. Motivation, then becomes, in part, a problem of getting the pupil to project himself into the future—five, ten, fifteen, or more years hence—to identify himself with future goals so strongly that his interests and desires of the present become part of his projection into the future. Motivation, however, does not consist of merely providing incentives to learning.

One approach to motivation suggested in current educational literature is teacher-pupil planning. Pupil participation in planning is foreign to many teachers as well as to pupils. Traditional practices have conditioned teachers to be handed a course of study and then to "teach" it to their students. The latter also have been conditioned by tradition to expect (at times rebelliously) the teacher to tell them what they are going to "learn" during any given term. Many teachers as well as many students, if given a choice between the traditional approach and the new one (that of combined planning), would prefer the former. Part of the reason for this is plain inertia. It takes added effort to change a course of action that has been established for a long time. Another reason is the sense of security one has in being told what to do. It takes more nervous energy to plan and assume responsibility than to follow another's directions. A third reason is that many teachers and pupils do not fully understand the nature and purpose of pupil participation in planning. The pupils may feel that the course, of necessity, must follow their expressed interests and likes and leave out what they do not have an interest in or do not like. The teacher also may feel that way at the beginning, but when he finds that pupil-expressed interests sometimes fall below what he thinks they ought to be interested in, he may become discouraged and want to give up the whole idea.

Another obstacle to teacher-pupil planning is that some students may lack the intellectual powers to dig into their own needs and interests. During class discussions, when the teacher may try to stimulate them to think of and express their needs and interests, he may find little constructive response. Then again he may feel that he must go back to the other extreme and do the planning himself.

Any new idea is frequently subject to misinterpretation. Teacher-pupil planning is a cooperative effort not merely in planning but in teaching on the part of the teacher and learning on the part of pupils. The teacher's function changes from that of one who imposes his will, chiefly by the force of his superior position as a public agent, to one who influences his students to want to undertake certain learning experiences, by the force of his leadership ability as a teacher. Teacher-pupil planning does not consist, therefore, of the teacher merely asking the students what they would like to learn, although that may be part of it. Instead, it is a cooperative effort, with the teacher as the leader, directed towards mapping out the term's work.

The impetus behind the accelerated teacher-pupil planning movement resides in the fact that learning is more purposeful when one participates in directing one's own learning. The belief that young people are too immature to participate in making decisions which affect them directly appears unfounded in the light of current psychological thinking. Furthermore, if we are to train adolescents in democratic living, which implies the ability to make intelligent choices, they must be given training in assuming responsibility for the outcome of their choices.

¹ Melville J. Herskovits, *Man And His Works*, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1949), p. 25.

² Richard T. La Pierre, and Paul R. Farnsworth, *Social Psychology*, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1942) pp. 51-52.

Visual and Other Aids

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One of the best atlases to appear in a long time is the *Cosmopolitan World* put out by Rand McNally & Company, which has offices in Chicago, New York, and San Francisco. Price is \$12.50.

Features include: large clear, detailed maps; an elaborate "World Political Information Table" listing countries, form of government, capital, largest city, area, population, predominant languages and religions; a "World Economic Climatic and Economic Table" showing natural resources, principal products, and industrial development of various countries; a series of separate information tables dealing with the United States. Great cities, oceans, deserts, mountains, islands, rivers, waterfalls, ship canals, dams, and tunnels of the world are named in attractively-printed listings. It is worthwhile for use in schools.

FILMS

Our America. 29 minutes. Free loan. Ideal Pictures, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago, Ill.

Comparisons of American Industry, past and present, and of American production in factory, mine, and farm, in contrast with other lands. Sponsored by Dodge Division and Chrysler Corporation.

'Round South America. 60 minutes. Color. Free loan. Ideal Pictures.

On this amazing tour we start at the Panama Canal, visit Bogota, Colombia, city of cathedrals; Quita, Ecuador, high in the Andes; Lima, "the city of Kings"; Cuzco, capital of the vast Inca Empire, etc. It is truly a spectacular film. Sponsored by Pan American World Airways.

Strategic Materials. 17 minutes. Color. Free loan. Ideal Pictures.

Here is another intensely interesting Sullivan Richardson travelog based on Central America. In brilliant color it records both the grandeur of the tropics and the industrial pioneering in America's southern neighbors. Sponsored by D. D. Rothacker.

Sergeant Bruce Reporting. 20 minutes each set. Loan. Association Films, Inc., 35 W. 45th Street, New York, N. Y.

This is a must for teen agers! It consists of 13 six-minute films, assembled into three 20 minute programs, covering all phases of safe driving.

The Crusades. YT-232. 3 reels. Rental, Association Films, Inc.

This film depicts the Third Crusade and the efforts made by the Christians to recapture the Holy Land.

The Man Without A Country. YT-403. 2 reels. Rental. Association Films, Inc.

Edward Everett Hale's true story of the man who committed treason and never wanted to hear mention of his native land again.

Daniel Boone. 8 reels. Rental. Institutional Cinema Service, Inc., 1560 Broadway, New York, N. Y.

The early struggles of American settlers is excitingly portrayed in this living chapter of history in the making.

Knickerbocker Holiday. 9 reels. Rental. Institutional Service, Inc.

In the old colonial days when Peter Stuyvesant ruled New Amsterdam, there was a struggle for more democracy and less taxation. This struggle is related in a tuneful and cheerful comedy.

Captain Caution. 9 reels. Rental. Institutional Service, Inc.

This film pictures adventure on the high seas during the War of 1812.

Electrified Farming. S238. 3 reels. Color. Association Films, Inc.

Old MacDonald would never recognize today's "power-driven" farm! Up-to-the-minute farm equipment is shown—cleaning barns, milking cows, sorting seeds, binding hay, and performing many other chores.

New Horizons. S-211. 2 reels. Association Films, Inc.

This is the new South. You'll find the magnolias, plantations, and river boats, but industry

and agriculture have undergone great changes in the past years. This film shows why.

The Search For Security. S-205. 2 reels. Association Films, Inc.

The England and America of the 18th Century, when men sought and first found security. The how's and why's in insurance are interestingly explained.

A Sailor Is Born. 20 minutes. Rental or sale.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

This film describes in detail the training received by British sailors. Their navy life begins with 36 weeks at the training school of *H.M.S. Ganges*, and moves on to maneuvers at sea.

Every Drop To Drink. 20 minutes. Rental or Sale. Sound. British Information Services.

Depicts how London met the problem of supplying and purifying its water. It describes the process of purification, the pumping system which serves an area of 540 square miles and many other other details of interest.

Trooping The Colors. 10 minutes. Rental or sale. Sound. British Information Services.

This technicolor film was filmed on the King's birthday, June 9th, 1949. One of the oldest and most impressive of military ceremonies, it is held annually on the famous Horse Guards Parade.

To Live Together. 30 minutes. Rental. Association Films, Inc.

This film shows an experiment in inter-racial relationship in a summer camp situation where the day-to-day experiences of children of different racial and cultural backgrounds result in significant changes in attitudes by most of the children.

Inside Tibet. 40 minutes. Black and white. Color. Rental. Association Films.

Go behind today's headlines into this mysterious, unknown lost horizon. Match thrills with two daring O.S.S. officers on an expedition along treacherous mountain passes, across rugged peaks and into medieval land of Marco Polo.

Silver Harvest. 22 minutes. Color. Institute of Visual Training, 40 E. 49th St., New York, N. Y.

Film reveals scenes of Norway's great sardine industry, its people, their costumes and life. Breath-taking scenes of Norway are displayed.

Of Human Rights. 2 reels. 20 minutes. Black and white. Sound. Department of Public Information, United Nations, N. Y.

An incident involving economic and racial prejudice among children is used to dramatize the importance of bringing to the attention of the people of the world their rights as human beings as set forth in The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, proclaimed by the United Nations General Assembly in December, 1948.

That All May Learn. 2 reels. 19 minutes. Sound. Black and white. United Nations.

The evils of illiteracy are demonstrated in the human, moving story of the exploitation of a Mexican farmer and his family. Unesco's part in correcting these conditions all over the world is portrayed.

John Greenleaf Whittier. 2 reels. Color. Sale or rental. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

Here is the story of a great poet and a strong abolitionist. The film traces his association with William Lloyd Garrison, and follows his work as a student and editor, when he began to establish himself as a writer and as an advocate of social reform.

Boundary Lines. 12 minutes. Rental. Color. Anti-Defamation League, 212 5th Ave., New York, N. Y.

Explains the imaginary lines which divide people from one another and shows that such lines have no basis in reality.

Don't Be A Sucker. 20 minutes. Rental. Anti-Defamation League.

This picture, made by the U. S. Army Signal Corps, exposes the rabble rousers who attempt to wreck democracy.

Prejudices. 50 minutes. Rental. Church Book Co., Woodward Building, Washington, D. C.

Film is designed to help the average person to understand his hidden prejudices, how he came by them, and how to overcome them.

Our Country's Flag. 1 reel. Sound. Color. Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago, Ill.

This film explains the meaning of the flag, its symbolism and why it should be respected. The Pledge of Allegiance is told about simply and carefully in terms of everyday activity and rules of respect to the flag are reviewed and clearly explained.

The Federal Government. (The Plan of Organi-

zation) 1 1/4 reels. Sound. Color. Coronet Films.

The structure and functions of the federal government are presented here in a manner designed to give us a clear picture of its operation. Outlined are the primary divisions of responsibility in the government — legislative, executive, and judicial.

Americans All. 22 minutes. Sale. United World-Castle Films, 1445 Park Ave., New York, N. Y.

History and geography of the countries south of the Rio Grande, and the way of life of these people is shown.

Roads South. 20 minutes. Sale. United World-Castle Films.

Illustrates transportation in the South American countries.

The Bridge. 30 minutes. Sale or rent. NYU Film Library, 26 Washington Place, New York, N. Y.

Film shows the economic basis of trade relations between Latin-America and the rest of the world.

Good Things Happen Over Coffee. 30 minutes. Free loan. Association Films, 347 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

Highlights the people, customs, scenery of Latin-America; and shows how coffee fosters inter-American trade and friendship.

Our Neighbors Down The Road. 40 minutes. Rent. Association Films.

Follow an automobile tour, much of it on the Pan-American highway, from Caracas to the Straits of Magellan.

Farmers of India. 20 minutes. Sale or rent. United World-Castle Films.

Depicts life in this densely overpopulated region (Middle Ganges Valley) — the great poverty, overcrowded conditions, famine and disease.

India. 12 minutes. Sale or rent. Association Films.

Here we can view the social and political problems of the 400 million people in this overcrowded land of India.

Promise of Pakistan. 17 minutes. Sale. March of Time Forum Films, 369 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y.

This film reveals the life, customs and daily activities within a new nation.

FILMSTRIPS

Crops of the Americas. 41 frames. U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

In these strips can be seen the wide variety of Latin-American products that are used in exchange with the U. S.

Central America. 30 frames. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Shows physical characteristics of Central America, and major industrial and agricultural pursuits.

Pivot of Asia. 56 frames. New York Times, Office of Educational Activities, 229 W. 43rd St., New York, N. Y.

Depicts the historical development of the republics of India and Pakistan; the present conflict between the two countries and their economic and social problems.

India. 60 frames. Informative Classroom Pictures Publishers, 40 Iona Ave., N.W. Grand Rapids, Mich.

Take a tour of India through photographs, map and drawings.

Israel Is Our Neighbor. 60 frames. Color. 20 minutes. Jewish Agency for Palestine, 16 E. 66th St., New York, N. Y.

This is the first complete pictorial record ever filmed of American students (summer) in Israel. Students are shown in classrooms, farms, and factories, as well as on tour through Israel's cities and varied historical and archaeological sites.

The American Negro. 49 frames. Sale. Film Publishers, Inc., 25 Broad St., New York, N. Y.

An examination of the American caste system with an evaluation of the contributions of the Negro.

Citizens in a Democracy. 36 frames. color. Sale. Eye Gate House, Inc., 330 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y.

Tells what democracy means in the mythical city of Fairtown.

It's Up To You. 50 frames. Sale. National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 4th Ave., New York, N. Y.

The materials and methods for eliminating discrimination in local communities are discussed.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights. 73 frames. Free. U. N. Film Division, United Nations, N. Y.

What the Declaration states and what it means to all of us.

RECORDINGS

"We Hold These Truths." 33 1/3 r.p.m. Loan.

Office of Education, Federal Radio Education Committee, Washington, D. C.

A one-hour broadcast dramatizing the fundamental truths contained in the Bill of Rights.

"The Man Who Liked People." 33 1/3 r.p.m.

Sale. Training Aids, Inc., 7414 Beverly Boulevard, Los Angeles, Cal.

The work of Jacob Riis in exposing slum conditions in NYC.

"The People, Yes!" 78 r.p.m. Sale. American Book Co., 88 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y.

Carl Sandburg recites from his poems on the principles and ideals of democracy.

RADIO

The Halls of Congress. WMCA. Each Friday, 8:30 P.M.

Review of important actions covered.

United Nations Today. WEVD. Each Friday, 8:30 P.M.

Review of important matters accomplished.

PICTURES (facsimiles)

The following facsimiles are photographic reproductions. These may be ordered from the National Archives, Room 100, Washington, D. C. Checks should be made payable to the Treasurer of the United States.

1. *Bill of Rights*, adopted December 15, 1791. (32" x 34") 55 cents.

2. *Oath of Allegiance of George Washington at Valley Forge.* 1778.

(10" x 8") 20 cents.

3. *Deposition of Deborah Gannett*, who fought for 3 years in the Revolutionary War and was discharged in Nov. 1783.

(11" x 14") 20 cents.

4. *Sitting Bull*, Chief of the Sioux.

(8" x 10") 20 cents.

5. *Abraham Lincoln*, 1864, by Matthew Brady.

(8" x 10") 20 cents.

News and Comment

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pa.

"PLIMOTH PLANTATION, INC."

No, this spelling is not incorrect. "Plimoth Plantation, Inc." is the name of a non-profit educational foundation which has been organized to reconstruct Plymouth as it existed in 1623. The foundation's program includes both archeological and historical research. Plimoth Foundation, Inc., will also publish material concerning the Pilgrims. It has already reconstructed models of the *Mayflower* and of a number of early Pilgrim homes.

The corporation distributes without charge a charming folder of colored photographs taken at Plimoth Plantation, Inc.'s First House and showing a Pilgrim family at home. The house with thatched roof stands in the middle of a lot enclosed by a weathered picket fence. In another picture, the mother in Pilgrim garb stands at the door of her house. One picture shows the Pilgrim family (with only two children) sitting upon settles at the dinner table; another, father in a Brewster chair reading to his family; and still another, mother playing with a child sitting in a Fuller cradle. One photo-

graph is a picture of mother helping her little boy to climb the ladder leading to the upper story, and another depicts an attractive young woman kneeling and holding a bowl next to an herb garden. This colored folder is an attractive visual aid.

Accompanying the folder is an illustrated booklet entitled "Historic Pilgrim Furniture illustrated by reproductions in Plimoth Plantation," showing the Pilgrim homes with boarded plank walls and thatched roofs, Pilgrim furniture, knife-scouring box, chests and so on. There are notes on their use, the location of originals, their ownership, and other interesting items. Notes on the picture of the bedstead include the following:

"Various kinds of beds are mentioned in the early Pilgrim inventories: feather beds, flock beds, mattress beds, wool beds, canvas beds, and just plain 'beds.' . . . The original of the one shown above may be seen at the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York. The children and hired hands slept in the loft on pallets."

The Heywood-Wakefield Craftsmen of Gardner, Massachusetts, reproduced the Pilgrim furniture from originals in the collections of the Pilgrim Society, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Connecticut Historical Society, and the Wadsworth Atheneum.

Another booklet, "The Pilgrim Memorial to be erected in The Town of Plymouth, Massachusetts" presents the program of the organization, showing photographs of Leyden Street, the first Pilgrim Home, a model of Pilgrim Memorial Village, the model of the Mayflower and so forth. Maps, ground plans and various architects' elevations are also included.

Rather voluminous mimeographed material is also distributed, containing a general bibliography on Pilgrim history with suggestions giving the best source for each of the various items, and a list of primary, contemporaneous, and other special sources. A second stapled lot of mimeographed pages is devoted to Thanksgiving Day observance and is complete with bibliography, objectives, and activities which are divided into general and difficult. It also includes a list of appropriate visual aids. A third lot of pages is similarly organized for the observance of November 21st—Mayflower Compact Day.

Upon request, all this material will be sent free. However, 9¢ in stamps is required to cover postage. Address

Arthur G. Pyle, Secretary
Box 107
Plymouth, Mass.

This material should be particularly useful to the teacher who is obliged to arrange a dramatic offering—playlet, tableau, and so on, especially for a Thanksgiving presentation. The use of this material should decrease the amount of time spent searching for pictures of Pilgrim houses, furniture and costumes. The information offered by the corporation was collected by scholars, expert in the history of the Pilgrims.

A RUSSIAN SKETCHES PHILADELPHIA 1811-1813

A somewhat later picture of a town in the Middle Atlantic States is presented in *The Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* (January 1951) by the late D. Fedotoff White in "A Russian Sketches Philadelphia, 1811-1813."

The Russian who pictured Philadelphia was Pavel Petrovich Svin'in, a young Russian diplomat. Although his official position was secretary to the Russian Consul General, he acted as a sort of commercial secretary of the Russian mission. In an article, "A Glance at the Republic of the United American Provinces," published in a Russian magazine in 1814, he enthusiastically described the cleanliness of Philadelphia's houses and streets.

Svin'in was an able artist, more talented as a painter than he was as a writer. Although his water colors of Philadelphia scenes are more distinguished than his book and his articles on the United States, his writing about the young American republic had great influence upon educated Russians.

Mr. White presents an interesting account of Svin'in's biography in the setting of the world situation of his time. He also gives credit to Dr. Avrahm Yarmolinsky for his erudite findings about Svin'in's paintings.

While in America, Svin'in traveled a great deal and became acquainted with New England, New York, Pennsylvania and Virginia.

In 1814 a series of Svin'in's articles on the United States were published in a St. Petersburg magazine *Syn Otechestva* (Son of the Fatherland). In the following year his book (Translation of the Russian title: An Essay of a Picturesque Voyage in North America) was published. It was illustrated with six of Svin'in's drawings.

Although the organization of his material left something to be desired, Svin'in's observations showed his intelligence and good-will toward the young country. He pointed out that . . . "the American federal state and its rapid advancement was a unique phenomenon, 'without precedent in the annals of history,' and that the same was true of the spirit of its government, its laws and politics, even of the family life and mores of its population, into the making of which went 'all peoples of the world.'"

Svin'in, though a strong Anglophile, did not permit his affection for Great Britain to affect his judgment of what he observed in America. He had the highest praise for George Washington and for the Federal Constitution. Although a Federalist sympathizer, he observed, during

the acute political struggle between the Federalists and the Democrats, that party animosities were intensified by the intrigues of Spanish and British agents.

He believed that the Indians were doomed to extinction as a result of the inroads of smallpox and alcoholism. He also foresaw that the Negroes would be liberated.

Svin'in's judgment of the progress of the general population showed that he was impressed by their code of morals as well as their wealth. He regarded Americans as more vivacious, more friendly and more hospitable than the British. He did not approve of their acquisitiveness though he admitted that there was little crime in the United States and that its citizens were strongly religious. His admiration went forth to the valor and ability of Americans in military service as well as to their seafaring qualities and enterprise.

Even at that early date, the humanitarianism of Americans impressed Svin'in. He mentions the hospitals, old people's homes, and orphan asylums existing even in small towns. American prisons were more like workshops than jails.

The public schools, the public libraries, the universities and the American Philosophical Society were greatly esteemed by Svin'in.

In his discussion of religion he emphasized the spirit of religious tolerance and his admiration for the Society of Friends. Other religious denominations are mentioned because they were little known in Russia and were described for the picturesqueness of their ritual.

In 1829, Svin'in published still another article on America, dealing with the fine arts in the United States. He predicted great things for American painting and admired American bridge builders. Several pages of this article were devoted to the description of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts.

Svin'in made many water colors of American life and landscapes. They are now in the possession of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York. Mr. White mentions that the late R. T. H. Halsey, who purchased them in 1925, wrote an excellent appreciation of their merits. He says that at least a few of them, such as the "Wordly Folk" scene and that of "Night Life in Philadelphia" deserve to be better known.

These water colors and some others ("Members of the City Troop and other Philadelphia Soldiery," "Probably an Exhibition of Indian Tribal Ceremonies at the Olympic Theatre, August 9, 1812," "A Philadelphia Anabaptist Immersion during a Storm," "Negro Methodists Holding a Meeting in a Philadelphia Alley," "A Winter Scene in Philadelphia with the Bank of the United States in the Background," "Negroes in front of the Bank of Pennsylvania") are reproduced in black and white at the end of Mr. White's article in *The Pennsylvania Magazine*. Even without color they are arresting. Each picture shows action in an informative setting. The details of the buildings are well drawn, and the bricks of the Philadelphia sidewalks and the street lamps look real enough to touch. The costumes of all the different classes of persons in these pictures show how they dressed in winter as well as in summer.

OLD ROADS

The town historian of Brookhaven, Long Island, Osborn Shaw, has compiled a comprehensive map record and card index of the town's roads from the days of Queen Anne.

This historian has two other achievements to his credit. To obtain data for the town records on vital statistics, this gentleman devised a method for deciphering data on tombstones which had been given up as unreadable nearly 100 years previously. He spread mud over the face of the stone, let it dry and then scraped the stone to leave mud in the inscription. This enabled him to read it.

Shaw's third accomplishment was shared by Phillip A. Hattemer, who came across the Dongan Patent in a waste basket ready to go to the incinerator. The Dongan Patent, the town's most valuable document, sets up the town's boundaries, establishes the town board of trustees in office and designates the town seal. (*N. Y. Sunday Times*, February 11, 1951, L 73).

UNIONS

Educators should become acquainted with the methods employed in producing the periodicals issued by some of the more powerful unions. This they should do in order to learn how to use the periodical as a more effective educational tool.

We have before us such a paper, *The United Automobile Worker*, the organ of the Inter-

national Union, United Automobile Aircraft and Agriculture Implement Workers of America—U.A.W.—C.I.O. The editor does not patronize his readers or talk down to them, even though the content of the paper is as simply, as clearly and cogently written as possible. Headlines of different sizes and kinds of type arrest the reader's attention. There is enough space between lines of type to make the reading process easy on the eyes. Blacker, heavier type is used to emphasize an idea. Judiciously placed pictures, cartoons, barographs, nutshell summaries in boxes communicate the editor's ideas readily to the reader.

We have just received the galley proof of *You and Unions* written by Dale Yoder, Professor of Economics and Director of the Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota. This booklet is one of the *Life Adjustment Series*. It is designed for young people and published by Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois. The price is 40¢ or three for \$1.00.

Like union periodicals, this booklet is clearly and simply written. Like them it has the human touch. It begins with the reader's attitude toward unions. Though extremely sympathetic to the union idea, this booklet is more restrained in its expression than are some union publications. On the other hand it justifies the practice of "feather bedding" without mentioning its expense to the public.

The second part of the booklet, "Unions—how and why they grew," shows their historical development beginning with primitive times when unions were not needed. In medieval times they were not possible. The long struggle for unionism is traced to the present day. The third part of the booklet explains "Union aims," the fourth "Union tactics," the fifth "Union organization and government," the sixth "Unions and public opinion."

If this booklet were to be used by youngsters in the secondary school it would have to be supplemented by the teacher's comments explaining situations more objectively. For example, the evils of "feather bedding" should be pointed out as well as the need to find jobs for unemployed union members. The teacher should question the patriotism of railroad strikers who prevent food, supplies and tanks from being sent to our hard-pressed soldiers at the front.

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION AND NEGRO SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH

The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is the regional accrediting agency for eleven Southern states—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas and Virginia. Prior to 1930 the Southern Association refused to rate the Negro secondary schools and colleges in its region. However, beginning in 1930, the Association agreed to rate the Negro institutions with the specific understanding that such rating would not carry with it membership status and the privileges incident thereto. A special committee was set up by the Association, designated as the "Committee on Approval of Negro Schools," and during the first eight years of the Committee's activity an executive agent was employed to make the examination upon which approval was based.

When the Southern Association met in Houston, Texas, in 1949, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes, which is composed of all the Negro schools and colleges which have been rated by the Southern Association in addition to a few Negro colleges in other regions, formally requested the Southern Association to admit the Negro schools to membership. The Southern Association agreed to consider the request and give their answer at the next meeting which was held in Richmond, Virginia, during the first week in December, 1950. At this meeting, however, the Southern Association declined to grant the formal request of the Negro schools and colleges of the region to become members of the Association. (Editorial Comment by Chas. H. Thompson in *The Journal of Negro Education*, Winter 1951.)

The Special Committee of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools on Relationships of Negro Institutions made the following observation:

"It was recognized that many social and non-professional problems might be involved in granting full membership to Negro institutions, but that representatives of Negro institutions would have to take upon themselves the burden of seeing that difficult and embarrassing situations did not arise."

The Southern Association's frank and unashamed statement of bias is somewhat shock-

ing. Though the Association probably prides itself upon its forthrightness, one would expect it to copy the shrewder and less honest behavior of some individuals associated with regional associations north of the Mason and Dixon line who in dealing with other individuals are as offensive but in so intangible a manner that they cannot be disciplined by any FEPC.

It is ironical that such educators both in the South and in the North are entrusted with the development of sterling moral character in the young.

MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION AND WORLD UNDERSTANDING

In an article in *The Packet* (February 1951) Delia Goetz, Specialist, Division of International Education Relations, U. S. Office of Education, discusses the interests of children in their fellows living in foreign countries. She believes that children are interested in a detailed account of a day at school in a foreign country and the kind of good times children have who live in other places—their music, dances, songs and sports.

She condemns the kind of teaching that produces children who think of Mexico in terms of tinkling guitars, adobe huts, and picturesque costumes. She believes that children should realize that many Mexicans dress as we do, live in apartment buildings just as many of us do and face the hazards of heavy automobile traffic just as we do. She also says that children should understand how geography changes ways of living. Although children should understand that fundamentally people are more alike than different, yet they must understand the ways in which people differ and the reasons for these differences. She also offers suggestions for promoting international understanding, as well as a bibliography and a list of exhibits, films and slides, recordings and speakers.

EDUCATION IN HOLLAND

Irvin R. Kuenzli in *The American Teacher* (February 1951) discusses the professional standards and working conditions of the teachers in Holland, where teachers have tenure for life. Their pension is 70 per cent of their maximum salary provided that they have taught for forty years. Teachers contribute only 2 per

cent of their salaries to the pension fund, the rest being paid by the government.

The salary of the Dutch teacher is considerably above that of skilled workers in the Netherlands. There is no sex differential. Men and women having the same experience and training receive the same salary. Salaries of secondary teachers are higher than those of elementary teachers because the former are required to have four additional years of training.

The schools are publicly supported. Thirty per cent are public schools, 40 per cent are Catholic and 30 per cent are Protestant. For all three types of schools, teachers must have the same qualifications, and all schools are government-inspected. Each type of school is represented by an association of its teachers. The three associations are federated. Every month three representatives of the federation meet with the Minister of Education.

In Holland, each principal must teach approximately ten periods or more a week.

Another article on education in the Netherlands, "Education on Dutch Canals," was written by Elizabeth Bancroft Schlesinger and published in the *Harvard Educational Review* (Winter 1951). Mrs. Schlesinger is interested in the education of the children belonging to the migratory worker's family. In the Netherlands, the migrants travel through the Dutch water-ways, in barges carrying freight. They are essential to the Dutch economy. From 1870 until the Nazi occupation in 1942 efforts were made to educate these itinerant children. In 1942 the national government issued a list of all the books to be used by the youngsters.

A class book was also authorized in which each teacher could record the work covered by the child as the latter went from port to port. In 1947 the Dutch government appointed an inspector and the schools for the barge children became a part of the national system. Fifteen boarding schools and thirty day schools are scattered through Holland and even in Germany along the Rhine where Dutch boats ply their trade.

Classes are held from 9-12, 1:30-3:30 and 3:30-5:45 for forty-two weeks. The curriculum includes the three R's, some geography and history of Europe, Indonesia and the Netherlands. The program continues for two years in some places; in others for three or three and

one-half years. Learning is taken very seriously by these youngsters. Teaching is entirely individual. Each child carries a record showing his educational progress as he journeys from one school to another. Today he may be in Amsterdam, tomorrow in Germany at some port along the Rhine where a Dutch school is located.

In addition to the boarding and day schools, there are a few other schools which offer advanced work in technical subjects for vocational training, such as training to become the skipper of a barge. Mrs. Schlesinger objects to these children not being taught anything about Dutch art and literature or about foreign countries.

From this experience Mrs. Schlesinger thinks that the education of the children belonging to American migrants might be better managed by having the Federal government establish schools in strategic areas, all following the same curriculum. The child then could feel more at home as he wanders with his parents from state to state and, as in Holland, obtain at least the elements of an education.

NOTES

Workshop on Sex Guidance in Family Life Education

Boston University, in cooperation with the Massachusetts Society for Social Hygiene, will conduct at Boston a summer workshop on Sex Guidance in Family Life Education for three weeks starting July 9, 1951. Co-leaders of the workshop will be Perry Dunlap Smith of the North Shore Country Day School in Illinois and Herbert D. Lamson, teacher and counselor in marriage at Boston University. There will be lectures and seminars, lectures being given by psychiatrists, pediatricians, sociologists, and marriage counselors. This workshop is designed for teachers in any field, administrators, parents, librarians, religious workers, guidance counselors, social workers, nurses, and any others who wish an orientation in this field. The course will carry either graduate or undergraduate credit depending upon the work done. For further information write to Director of Summer Session, 725 Commonwealth Ave., Boston, Massachusetts.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

An Outline of Scientific Criminology. By Nigel Morland. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1950. Pp. 287. \$3.00.

The title of this work might be misleading to the usual American reader since it is not concerned, as might be expected, with such topics as the causes of crime or the characteristics of the criminal, but rather with criminal identification and detection—the field sometimes known as criminalistics.

Within this restricted field, the author recounts in an easy and informal manner the techniques, procedures, and principles that have proved most fruitful in such areas as finger printing, Bertillonage, ballistics, forensic medicine and chemistry, graphology, cryptography, microscopy, and photography. For the most part, in his exposition, he steers a pretty good middle course between the Scylla of over-gen-

erality and superficiality, and the Charybdis of overburdening the non-specialist with too much technical detail.

Since the topics treated here are usually either omitted entirely or dismissed in a cursory fashion in the usual college course in criminology, this work should prove of value both to instructor and student as collateral reading. A dozen very clear photographs add to the interest of the work.

JERRY A. NEPRASH

Franklin and Marshall College
Lancaster, Pennsylvania

Evaluative Criteria for Audio-Visual Instruction Program. By J. C. Schwartz, Jr. Dubuque, Iowa: W. C. Brown Co. Pp. 50, 75¢.
The A-V Bibliography. By F. Dean McClusky. W. C. Brown Co. Pp. 200. \$2.75.

Audio-Visual Teaching Techniques. By. F. Dean McClusky. Dubuque, Iowa: W. C. Brown Co., Pp. 139, \$2.75.

The first publication by Dr. Schwartz is a workbook which presents concise standards to be used in evaluating an audio-visual program. School systems will benefit by the constructive suggestions of this evaluation. This book is written in a simple yet concise manner and will enable a supervisor or teacher to see the strengths and weaknesses in their audio-visual program.

The second book, *The A-V Bibliography*, by F. Dean McClusky, is a comprehensive index of references. There are over 3000 separate references on writings in the audio-visual education field. The references are also cross-indexed. The book has eight major sections, further separated into 110 sub-divisions. The bibliography references are complete as to authorship, title, publisher, volume number and inclusive pages. This work is a must, for it will enable teachers, students, and specialists to locate discussions on audio-visual instruction quickly.

The third book, *Audio-Visual Teaching and Techniques*, also by F. Dean McClusky, is similar to a syllabus. It gives teachers the essential information necessary for making intelligent use of non-verbal materials of instruction. The author stresses that audio-visual techniques are not something apart from other types of teaching, but rather essential to good instruction. The author also emphasizes principles which have application in broad areas of school practice. The book contains carefully worded laboratory exercises and problems for students. An up-to-date bibliography is found at the end of each chapter. The work is also well illustrated. It will give teachers and administrators a better understanding of the importance of non-verbal experience in education.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

The Peabody Sisters of Salem. By Louise Hall Tharp. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1950. Pp. xxvi, 372. \$3.50.

Mrs. Louise Tharp has made a valuable triple biography in her history of Elizabeth, Mary, and Sophia Peabody and their times. The author had a wide field to cover from 1833 to 1894,

and an ever changing environment and cast of new characters; yet she has made a smoothly woven tale.

For those who love New England and its Concord group, the book is indispensable, for it throws new light on the characters of the men and women who gathered in Salem, in the Boston Book Shop, or in the Philosophers' Hall at Concord, to discuss transcendentalism or local politics.

The father of these three celebrated Peabody ladies was quiet, henpecked Dr. Nathaniel Peabody, doctor and dentist. His domineering wife was a teacher and a conservative. She tried to keep a check rein on him and on Elizabeth, the aggressive; on Mary, the loving, humorous one; and on her pet, the delicate Sophia. Through her three hundred pages the author quietly develops the differences in character and talents of these devoted sisters.

The invalid Sophia suddenly renounces all illness and astonishes her family by announcing she is to be married, and immediately, July 9, 1842, to Nathaniel Hawthorne and live in the Old Manse at Concord. Hawthorne had previously seemed interested in Elizabeth, and Sophia was then thirty-three, but she bore three children, and was a happy wife for twenty-two years.

Then Mary drew Horace Mann from endless discussions with Elizabeth, married him, and went with him to Europe to study the schools there. On their return they went to Yellow Springs to be the founders of Antioch College, Ohio. Mann's life was one long struggle with poverty, with his associates, with his trustees; but Mary was devoted and bore him three sons.

Elizabeth, the oldest Peabody, the one of many urges, the most gifted, and the most energetic, talked boldly with the sages of Concord and Boston, and lectured on their platforms on their philosophy or on their views on social and economic problems. She did not often agree with the sages; she discussed the world in general with them, but had no desire to marry any one of them. She lived to be ninety, and with her sisters and with Bronson Alcott started schools, as well as the famous *Book Shop*. But Elizabeth Peabody is best known for the work of her old age. After her one trip to Europe, she returned to start the establishment of the kindergarten on the Froebel type, all over the United States.

Mary, perhaps, is best known as one who aided in the founding of schools of the Horace Mann type.

The Peabodys were always poor but never lacked money for education, lectures, and travel. They supported themselves by starting at various times and places, small schools for small children. Sophia could earn more by minutely copying famous paintings, popular at that period.

Keeping always the three sisters in the foreground, Mrs. Tharp handles her material skillfully and for the background brings in glimpses of the struggles going on in education for women's rights, temperance, abolition, and creeds. She brings out the pathos in the early death of Horace Mann in 1859, and of Nathaniel Hawthorne in 1864. The author is clever in relieving the New England tenseness of purpose by a sharp but quiet aside that gives the reader of 1950 a sophisticated chuckle.

The book is a delight to all, especially to those who know New England, its Salem, Concord, and Boston people.

S. A. WALLACE

Washington, D. C.

Asbury Ridge: New England Outpost. By John Hampton Atkinson. Boston: The Christopher Publishing House, 1950. Pp. 268. \$4.00.

The author, a retired schoolteacher, gives an interesting narrative of the scenes and activities of his family and neighbors in a rural Ohio community in the eighties and nineties. Puritan New England families had been transplanted in this frontier soil in the early eighteen hundreds. The community of Asbury Ridge had large families who lived in rural simplicity with the high ideals of a New England conscience. The peddler, the farmers, the craftsmen, country schoolmasters, housewives, the storekeeper, and others, are depicted. There are observations of the school lessons, gathering of the crops, sorghum-making, butchering, and the revival. These are ordinary folks. The book is a fine example of regional history.

IRA KREIDER

Abington High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

Our Standard of Living. By Charles H. Scherf.

New York: Globe Book Company, 1950. Pp. 536. \$3.00.

Our Standard of Living is an excellent book for senior high school students. The format, illustrations, topics for debate, questions, and summaries add to the attractiveness and usefulness of this text. The organization and inclusion of material for discussion is adequate for groups of all ability levels.

The eighteen chapters challenge the thought of high school students. They are written in a way that immediately provokes thought. In an adroit manner the book brings together the economic, sociological, political, psychological, ethical and esthetic implications of life in an historical treatment. The questioning approach to the subject of the standard of living is followed by a summary of the eighteen essentials for a happy life which cause the student to seek an answer through further study and analysis of his own experiences.

Throughout the text, the principles and problems are related to the daily experience and life plans of youth. This emphasis is carried even further by the suggested questions, topics for debate, floor talks, projects, explanation of a criticism, and suggested problems, such as "Constants, variables and tendencies" at the end of the chapters. In addition there is a brief bibliography.

Much better than many books in the field of economics, chapters four through fifteen deal with the elements of economics within the range of high school students. The vocabulary is familiar and is essential to a high school student.

Attractive chapter headings are: "Why Are We So Poor?" "Why Are We So Rich?" "Family Life and Our Standard of Living." "Crime Lowers Living Standards." These chapters actually give the reader the concept that the title implies. They make "Our Standard of Living" vital, challenging, and meaningful to the high school student.

The teacher with creative imagination, with the aid of this book, can help the students to realize and understand a true social-cultural standard as well as an economic one.

RALPH N. D. ATKINSON

Department of Social Studies
South High School
Denver, Colorado

The Prodigal Century. By Henry Pratt Fairchild. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. xvii, 258. \$3.75.

This little book by the Professor-Emeritus of Sociology of New York University is a study of the ideas, values, standards, and objectives that dominated the social and economic thought of the nineteenth century, especially in the United States. Its record of extravagance, ruthlessness, and flagrant waste of the good things of the earth has well earned the designation of the Prodigal Century.

According to Professor Fairchild, the Nineteenth Century was the one and only time in the long history of mankind when, through a fortunate combination of circumstances, mankind had the opportunity of realizing its age-long dream of peace and plenty. At the beginning of that century it had fallen heir not only to the undeveloped Western Hemisphere and Australia, increasing the land resources by fifty per cent, but also to revolutionary technological and scientific discoveries and inventions to effectively utilize these resources. Instead of using this vast heritage for the good of all mankind, the nineteenth century saw the greater portion squandered through "incredible folly, misuse, and waste." While through its philosophy of scarcity and confusion of science with religion and change with progress it gave to the twentieth century material luxury and mechanical efficiency, it gave also to the present age a state of perpetual war and a record of human degradation and unmatched cruelties.

Professor Fairchild feels mankind may still achieve its cherished goal of peace, plenty and freedom provided it completely rejects the exploitative ideas and practices of the nineteenth century and accepts the implications of moral progress, the scientific method, and social democracy.

This very stimulating and provocative book merits careful study by students of current problems. Teachers of social studies can ill afford to be without it.

MORRIS S. GRETH

Muhlenberg College
Allentown, Pennsylvania

The Governments of Foreign Powers. By Philip W. Buck and John W. Masland. New York,

N. Y.: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1950. Pp. xi, 948. \$3.50.

This revision of Buck and Masland's *The Governments of Foreign Powers* does much to portray certain aspects of the present world situation. The governmental problems and procedures set forth are those of seven countries, viz., England, France, Italy, Germany, the Soviet Union, Japan, and China.

Throughout the work the authors maintain an objective attitude, conforming to their own advice—a principle which should have wider acceptance: "In approaching the study of any government, one must keep in mind the circumstances in which it operates."

The authors do not consider that men set up governments on account of freakish whims, but because of attempts to solve problems apparently otherwise insoluble. It must be recognized, the authors think, that industrialization, and consequent urbanization, have brought similar problems to all nations of our era.

As a reference book for writers, this work will prove useful. It will also serve as a text for courses in Comparative Government, and will speedily find its way into various collateral reading lists.

J. F. SANTEE

University of Portland
Portland, Oregon.

The Making of American History. Edited by Donald Sheehan. New York: The Dryden Press, 1950. Vol I, Pp. viii, 350; vol. II, pp. viii, 351-700. \$2.40.

Faced by large numbers of students in the survey course in American history, the college teacher has long had a problem in assigning readings beyond the textbook. To help in this task, as well as to acquaint the student with the raw material of history, collections of documents were first published. Then as history broadened, editors culled the sources for more than political writings and published excerpts from pamphlets, diaries, and speeches, illustrative of the life of the common man. Not long ago, a publisher issued several small volumes, each given to a topic such as the Civil War and each containing essays which differ in their interpretation of that event. Sheehan's two volumes offer another approach to the problem and they will have wide appeal to those who

believe a student can understand history without going beyond secondary accounts.

Beginning with a chapter from Andrews', *The Colonial Period of American History* and closing with one from Sherwood's *Roosevelt and Hopkins*, there are ten to twenty-five page essays from the books of Parkman, Beer, Becker, Beard, Adams, Turner, Parton, Schlesinger, Jr., Phillips, Hansen, Commons, Beale, Parrington, Dunning, Nevins, Webb, Tarbell, David, Pratt, Hicks, Pringle, Allen, and the Lynds. Each of these (except Beale who writes on writing about the Civil War) is known to have affected historical interpretation and to have gained general acceptance by the profession. Only Beard appears twice, with one selection from his *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States*, the other from *America in Midpassage*. The Lynd's *Middletown* is the only sociological offering. Each volume contains thirteen excerpts, and volume I closes at 1865.

One could easily quarrel with an editor who divides our history into nine parts (The Colonial Heritage, The Foundations of the Republic, Nationalism and Democracy, The Failure of Compromise, The Aftermath, The Rise of Industrial America, Voices of a Respectful Past, Prelude and Finale, and the New Deal and One World), or with some of the choices of historians to represent the writing of that period. For example, does Marcus Hansen's *The Atlantic Migration* fall under "The Failure of Compromise," or is immigration itself a significant subject? Other readers will ask other questions, but none will deny that these two volumes represent a new approach to the problem of supplementary reading.

The profession is indebted to the editor not only for his selection of historical writing but also for brief analyses which introduce each historian. These neatly place the essay in its proper niche in the history of scholarship. Both high school and college teachers will find these volumes useful, and some college students will thrill to learn where the writer of their text and their professor acquired some of their understanding of history.

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HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS

General

The State Department of Education of Pennsylvania is in the process of revising the course of study of Secondary Social Education.

The recommended program by grade levels is as follows.

Seventh Grade

Learning to Live With Others at Home and With Our World Neighbors in Europe, Asia, and Africa

Eighth Grade

Our American Heritage: The Development of Our Nation and Our Democratic Government

Ninth Grade

Learning to Live Together Through a Study of Pennsylvania, Its Geography, History, and Government in a National and World Setting

Tenth Grade

Our World Heritage: The Progress of Mankind and its Influence Upon Our Living Today

Eleventh Grade

Democratic and Industrial America in a World Setting

Twelfth Grade

Problems of American Democracy in Our World Today

Copies of the proposed Course of Study may be obtained by writing to the State Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

Pamphlets

International Ladies Garment Workers Union News History, 1900-1950.

Request for the book can be addressed to I.L.G. W.U., 1710 Broadway, New York City, N.Y.

Six new volumes in Problems in American Civilization have been prepared by the American Studies Staff, Amherst College.

Published by D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, Massachusetts, Paper bound \$1.00 each, about 125 pages each.

The Titles of these volumes are as follows:

Puritanism in Early America.

The Causes of the American Revolution.

Hamilton and the National Department.
Pragmatism and American Culture.
Industry Wide Collective Bargaining.
Promise or Menace?
Roosevelt-Wilson and the Trusts.

Articles

"Ancient Mesopotamia: A Light that did not fail!" by E. A. Speiser. *The National Geographic Magazine*, Volume XCIX, Number 1, January, 1950.

"Thomas Jefferson and Education" by Mary Ruskin, *The Social Studies*, Volume XLI, Number 6, December 1950.

"Clock Watchers" by Walter E. Myer, *The American Observer*, Volume XX, Number 16, January 8, 1951.

"The '50 Election. Its Meaning to Congress and to the Nation," *Congressional Digest*, December 1950.

"Congress is Ready." *Weekly News Review*, Volume XXIX, Number 15, January 1, 1951.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Challenge of Democracy. By Theodore P. Blaich and Joseph C. Baumgartner. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950. Pp. xxx, 784. \$2.50.

Revised and brought up to date.

Asbury Ridge. By John Hampton Atkinson. Boston, Massachusetts: The Christopher Publishing House, 1950. Pp. vi, 268. \$4.00.

Asbury Ridge depicts the period of the eighties and nineties showing the changes that were brought about in rural communities.

The Know-Nothing Party in the South. By W. Darrell Overdyke. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1950. Pp. xv, 322. \$4.00.

An excellent presentation on this period of American History.

Introduction to Social Science: A Survey of Social Problems. By George C. Atteberry, John L. Auble, Elgin F. Hunt, and Peter Masiko, Jr. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950. Pp. xxv-xlvi, 823. \$5.00. Volume 11.

Revised Edition with new material and chapters added.

An Autobiography. By Sir Arthur Keith. New York: Philosophical Library, 1950. Pp. xxxv, 721. \$4.75.

A story that will fascinate the general reader.
How to Win an Argument with a Communist. By Ray W. Sherman. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1950. Pp. xxix, 251. \$2.50.

A book that should equip every reader with the facts to defeat Communism.

Half One World. By Foster Hailey. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950. Pp. 207. \$3.00.

This book explains what is at stake for us in Asia.

The New Nation. By Merrill Jensen. New York: Alfred A. Knopf Inc., 1950. Pp. xx, 432. \$5.00.

A history of the United States during the Confederation, 1781-1789.

The Yankee Exodus: An Account of Migration From New England. By Stewart H. Holbrook. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950. Pp. xxiii, 398. \$5.00.

A description of the New Englander's migration to the West.

American Labor Unions. Compiled by Herbert L. Marx, Jr. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1950. Pp. 240. \$1.75. The Reference Shelf Volume 21 Number 5.

A book that should appeal to people that argue on either side of the question.

Leading Constitutional Decisions. By Eugene Cushman. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. Pp. x, 410. \$2.50. Ninth Edition.

A valuable book for Government and American History classes.

The World in Our Day. By Joseph Peck. New York: Oxford Book Company, 1950. Pp. xx, 316. 65 cents each. (paper bound.)

A text that is extremely helpful for the study of the present emergency.

Policy for the West. By Barbara Ward. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1951. Pp. xxiii, 317. \$3.75.

Timely and deserves reading.

A Courageous Conquest: The Life of F. D. R. By Mabel Montgomery. New York: Globe Book Company, 1951. Pp. xxiii, 191. \$1.85.

The unbiased life story of a courageous man.